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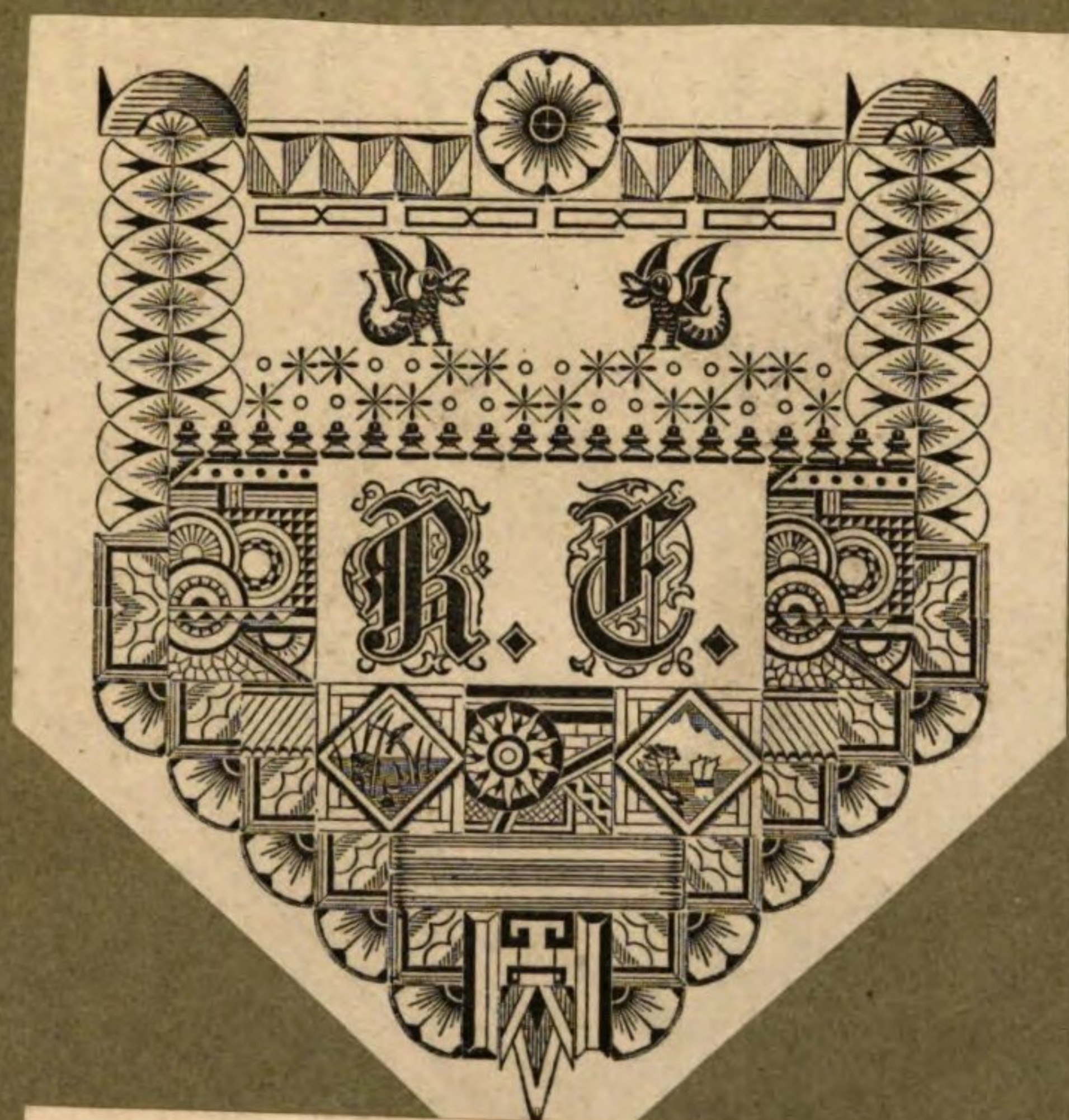
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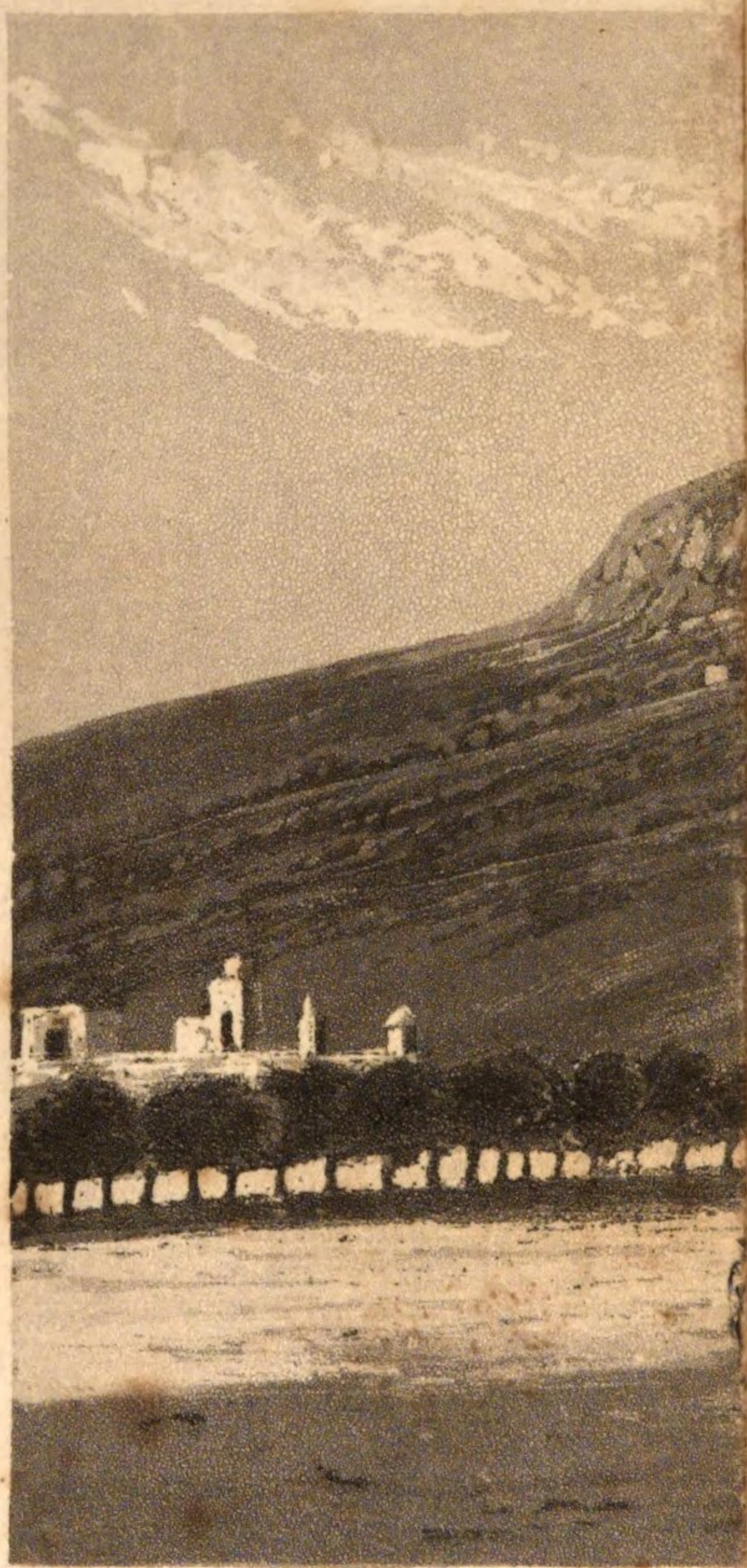
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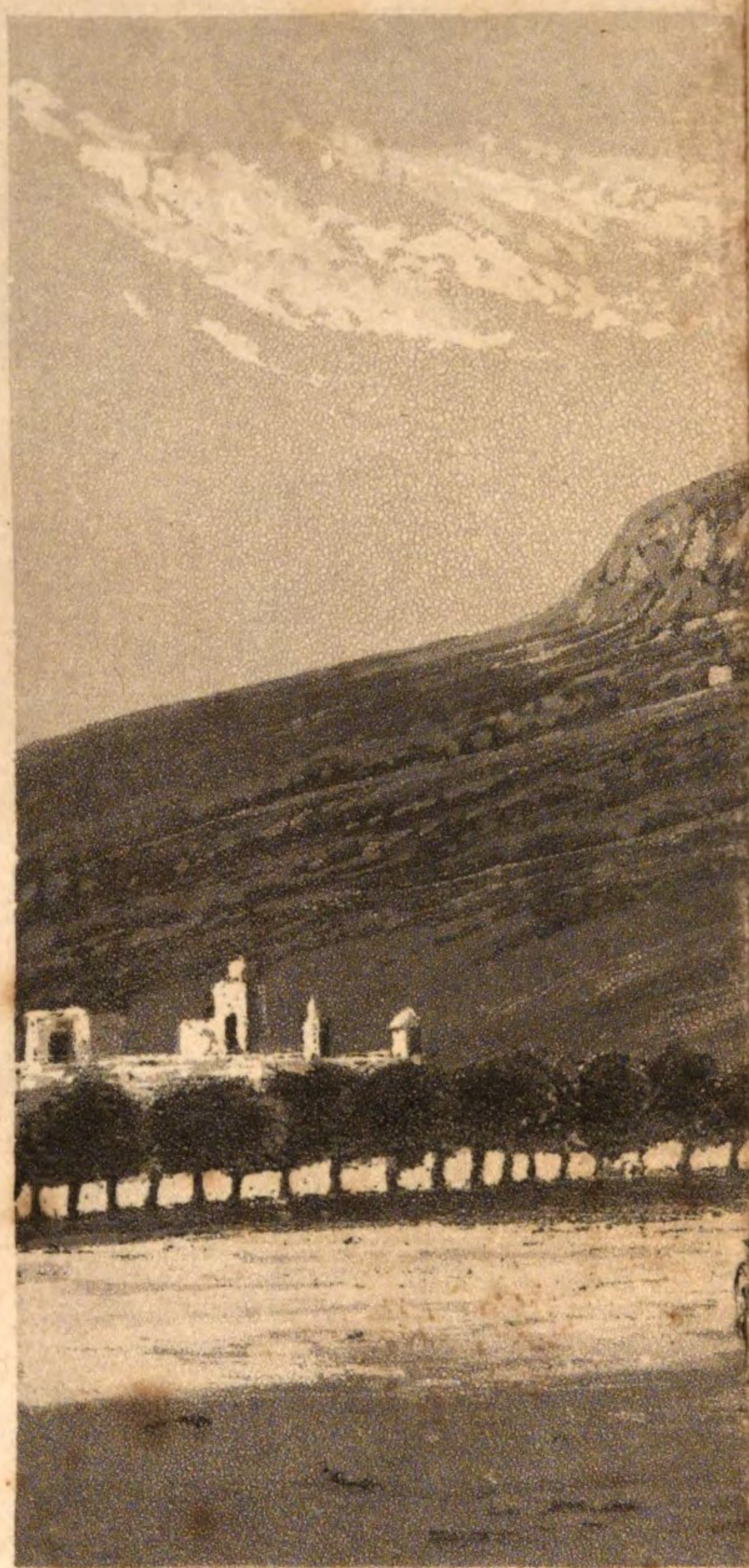
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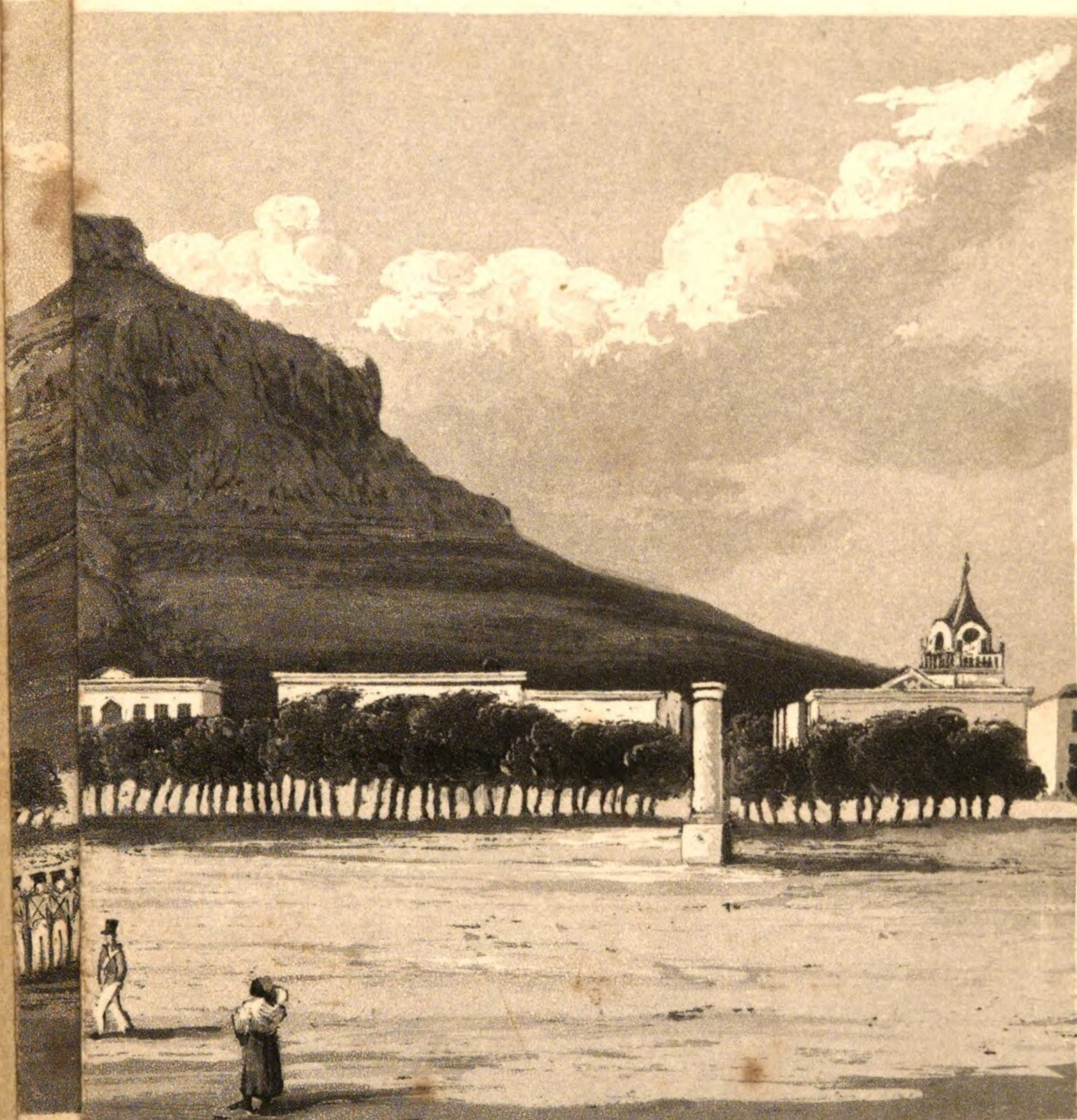
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TRAVELS
AND
ADVENTURES
IN
SOUTHERN AFRICA.

BY
GEORGE THOMPSON, ESQ.

EIGHT YEARS A RESIDENT AT THE CAPE.

COMPRISING A VIEW OF
THE PRESENT STATE OF THE CAPE COLONY.
WITH OBSERVATIONS ON THE
PROGRESS AND PROSPECTS OF BRITISH EMIGRANTS.

SECOND EDITION.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

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TRAVELS AND ADVENTURES

IN

SOUTHERN AFRICA

PART II. CONTINUED.

**EXCURSION TO THE COUNTRY OF THE BUSHMEN,
KORANNAS, AND NAMAQUAS, &c.**

TRAVELS AND ADVENTURES

SOUTHERN AFRICA

PART II. CONTINUED.

EXCURSION TO THE COUNTRY OF THE BUSHMEN.

KORANAS, AND NAMAGUAS &c.

TRAVELS AND ADVENTURES,

&c. &c.

CHAPTER IV.

- Return of Witteboy with Game.—Voracity of the Hottentots.
—Arrival on the Banks of the Gariep.—Hyænas and Lions.
—Journey down the River.—Band of Koranna Huntsmen.
—Excursion to view a remarkable Waterfall.

THE tedious day wore on apace as we thus sat anxiously waiting the return of Witteboy, who, with his party, had been long hidden from our view by the undulations of the country. The old Koranna was talkative and friendly in his way, and did his best to entertain me; sometimes

4 SUFFERINGS FROM THIRST AND HUNGER.

supplying me with a morsel of gum to stay my stomach, sometimes sending a little girl to bring us water in an ostrich egg-shell. This water, though the best they could procure, was so much impregnated with salt, that it seemed only to increase the thirst it was intended to relieve. The hot dry wind from the north-east blew witheringly upon us,—parching up the lips till they cracked, and relaxing our wasted frames to exceeding languor. I felt oppressed by a torpid lethargy, but tried in vain to escape from my cares by sleep; a horrible night-mare constantly invaded my slumbers, and soon awoke me. Jacob was still worse than myself, and seemed already almost exanimate. It was with much difficulty that I could rouse him up now and then to interpret the questions I put to the old Koranna.

Evening at length approached, and still the hunting party appeared not. The pangs of hunger pressed sore upon us, and our only relief was to draw our “girdles of famine” still tighter round our bodies. I wished much that I had provided myself with a pair of dandy stays, which, in my present circumstances, would have been

invaluable. At length, just as the sun was sinking under the horizon, we descried Witteboy and his Koranna followers returning; and the sharp eyes of my comrades soon discovered that they were loaded with flesh. As they approached, this joyful news became certain. A zebra had been shot, and each was carrying a piece of it for immediate consumption. The Korannas, old and young, sprang forth to meet the huntsmen, skipping, dancing, and shouting for joy. Jacob and I, exhausted as we were, were reanimated by their jocund cries, and by the sight of so seasonable a relief, to a sense of joy and gratitude, less clamorous, but scarcely less intense than that of these half-famished savages. We had now been nearly four days without food, and but very ill supplied with bad brackish water. Had Witteboy again failed of success in hunting, we must have killed one of our horses—a resource which the Hottentots were even more unwilling than myself to resort to.

Without questioning Witteboy how or where he killed the zebra, we all commenced roasting and eating. In a short time I had picked seve-

ral of his ribs. As for the Hottentots, I do not exaggerate when I say, that each of them had devoured eight pounds of meat within an hour, and an additional allowance of three or four pounds more before they slept. The Korannas marched off in a body to the place where the zebra was shot, to feast upon the offals, and certain parts of the carcase which we had allotted them, on the condition of their keeping careful watch over the remainder until we joined them in the morning.

The sudden change in the appearance of my Hottentots this evening, after their hunger was assuaged, was remarkable. Hope and happiness again reanimated them, and that haggard and horrid appearance which had invested their visages, began to disappear. So voracious was their appetite, that I really became apprehensive they would kill themselves by repletion: and in the middle of the night, when I awoke, I again found them eating and smoking by turns.

We made our bivouac this night upon the high bank of the river; for the Korannas had warned us not to sleep again in the channel where we lay

the preceding evening ; that being, as they said, literally "the lion's path." Our new lodging was but a bleak one. We could with difficulty collect fire-wood sufficient to warm us ; our couch was the bare flinty gravel ; and the night wind was so chill as to prevent us from sleeping comfortably. The moon also had deserted us, and we were disturbed all night long by the hungry hyænas howling around us.

13.—We saddled up at an early hour. Jacob, notwithstanding his ravenous appetite the preceding evening, was so weak and stiff, that he could not rise without assistance. We got him, however, on horseback, and proceeded north-east about seven miles, through a labyrinth of low rugged hills, sprinkled over with bushes of the *Wagt-een-beetje*. We found there the Korannas in charge of the remains of the zebra. The heavy incursions made upon the carcass, and the excessive protuberance of paunch now visible in these hungry guardians, evinced that they had made good use of their time and their teeth. We saved, however, the two hind-quarters and the head for our own use, and without delay tied them upon

our pack-horses. The Korannas were rewarded with the remainder. Our new acquaintance, well pleased with our generosity, would gladly have persuaded us to go in pursuit of a herd of zebras which we saw at no great distance; but having now as much meat as we could conveniently carry, it was a matter of too urgent importance to get forward to the Gariep, and to prosecute the remainder of my excursion without delay, to admit of wasting our time and strength in hunting for the natives, whose destitute condition we could not permanently relieve, even if successful.

We made the best of our way, therefore, towards the Gariep, which we reached to our great satisfaction, in about a couple of hours. After suffering so severely as we had done, from the want of water, what a glorious object did this river appear, flowing in a majestic stream, deep and rapid, and 500 yards in breadth! We hurried down to the channel, and plunged our hands and faces into the cooling waters, and at length assuaged a thirst which the briny wells of the Korannas seemed at every draught to increase. We then turned our horses out to refresh themselves

on the herbage along the banks, while we employed ourselves, under the shade of the willows, in cutting up our zebra flesh into thin slices, to dry in the sun. Having now abundance of meat, and a whole river of fresh water, we made a princely feast, though without either salt or sauce, or any sort of vegetable. We found the zebra flesh sweet and good; yet it never seemed somehow sufficiently to satisfy our hunger,—and we had scarcely finished one meal, before we found ourselves ready for another.

It was remarkable, that during the period of our recent sufferings from hunger and thirst, my imagination, both sleeping and awake, was continually conjuring up all manner of dainties, and delicious brooks of limpid water. Now that we had plenty of flesh, it seemed to me as if bread alone could satisfy me.

Our horses were so much knocked up by want of water, bad pasturage, and flinty roads, that they required rest and refreshment not less than ourselves. We resolved, therefore, to remain here till next day at noon.

After all our privations, it was no slight sa-

tisfaction to me, to have so far accomplished one of the objects of my journey. I had reached the banks of the Gariep by a route never taken before by any traveller, and had been enabled to add to the map of South Africa, the distinctive features of the intermediate region, which, dreary and desolate though it be, is not without a strong interest in the eyes both of the naturalist and the philanthropist.

The Gariep must pour into the ocean a mighty volume of water at certain seasons. At this period it was at its lowest ebb, and only about 500 yards in breadth; but the numerous vestiges of its overflowings extended over each bank at least a mile from the margin of the water, and at some places to three or four times that distance. At the spot where we had reached it, and for a considerable way downwards, its course was nearly north-west. On the opposite bank a ridge of mountains runs parallel with the river. This ridge, as I have ascertained, accompanies its course from a little below Griqua Town almost to the ocean, a distance of nearly 500 miles: I have called it the Gariepine walls. At no great dis-

tance above our present station, a curious rapid is said to be formed by the approach of this Gariepine wall to the ridge called the Duke of York's mountains. At that place the river, forcing its passage between the hills, is to a considerable extent arched over by an immense cliff, suspended between two rocks. The roar of the waters rushing through this narrow gateway, was distinctly heard by us at a distance of many miles. But during the season, when the river is swollen to its full height, the scene must be infinitely more imposing; and the immense collection of waters above the rapid, then spreading out into a noble lake, studded with islands, must be a magnificent object to the lone dwellers in the wilderness. The Gariep is subject at all times to very sudden risings, occasioned by heavy rains in the upper part of its course, and on this account the natives are cautious not to sleep too near the margin of the stream. We had ventured this evening, however, to make our bivouac even in the channel of the river, for the sake of more easy access to the water. About midnight, we were suddenly awakened by a loud roaring, "like the voice of many

waters" rushing down upon us. We started up in a terrible fright, and ran to our horses, thinking the floods, with all their "water-kelpies," were come to sweep us off to the ocean: when lo! the sound died away in distance, and was heard no more. We then concluded that it was the roar of the rapid, borne down to us by a sudden gust of wind, and ventured to return to our couch of sand, where we slept undisturbed through the rest of the night.

14.—A little before daybreak we turned out our horses to graze, being anxious to refresh them as much as possible before we again started. They had not been long at large, before we heard the hungry howl of the hyæna, and presently four of the horses came up to our fire at full gallop, as if claiming our protection. We instantly seized our guns and ran to the rescue of the remaining horse, and found him beset in a corner of the thicket by a ferocious tiger-wolf (*hyæna crocuta*,) who was attempting to break in upon him. We soon put to flight the hyæna, and brought off our poor old hack, trembling all over like an aspen.

We breakfasted this morning on the zebra's



G. Thompson Esq. del.

SPRING BOK AND KOODOO.

London, Publ^d by H. Colburn, Jan^y 1827

head, which we had buried the preceding night in the hot embers. We then repaired the wear and tear of our riding gear, packed up our dried meat, and got ready to start about noon, having, as we conceived, now tolerably recruited ourselves and our steeds. I observed a variety of birds at this place, viz. herons, water-hens, wild geese, divers, three sorts of crows, several species of hawks and vultures, two species of swallows, three of pigeons, and a variety of finches and other small birds. The crows were extremely familiar, coming within a few paces of us, and picking up the bones we threw to them. The smaller birds also appeared, from their familiarity, to be very little annoyed by mankind. We observed no natives, nor any traces of them in this vicinity.

About two o'clock we left Junction Station, as I had called it, in reference to the confluence of the Hartebeest with the Gariep. The dry channel of the former river, which we soon after crossed, was here of vast extent, manifesting the gigantic force and magnitude of this torrent of the desert when it is in flood. We found the banks of the Gariep, as we proceeded downwards,

so closely beset with mimosa and willow groves and thickets, that it was extremely difficult to get access to the water. As we rode along, a herd of koodoos, which had been down to drink, bounded past us from the thicket, but too suddenly to enable us to fire with effect at them.* At these paths, made by the wild game through the jungle in resorting to drink at the rivers, the lion very frequently lies in wait, in order to spring suddenly upon his prey. Such places are, consequently, peculiarly dangerous, of which my Hottentots this evening obtained sufficient demonstration. We had unsaddled on the bank, and Witteboy and Jacob had proceeded with the horses down to the water, when a lion suddenly made a spring at one of them, but missing him walked off, (as that animal generally does in such circumstances,) without making a second attempt. The

* The koodoo is one of the most remarkable of the South African antelopes, but now too well known to all lovers of natural history to require minute description. The horns of the male are sometimes upwards of four feet in length; yet he is a lover of the thorny brakes on the river banks: the female is destitute of horns. The figures of this animal, and the springbok, in the accompanying plate, are accurately engraved.

Hottentots hurried back in terror, and we lost no time in tying up the horses, and lighting a large fire to protect them and ourselves from this powerful and insidious enemy. We experienced, during the night, no farther disturbance.

15.—Continued our journey at daybreak. The views we occasionally caught of the river from the rising grounds on its banks, were very magnificent. The rich foliage of the willows along the margin, and the thickets, or rather forests of mimosa-trees, spreading for at least a mile on either side, formed a striking contrast to the parched-up plains and hills out of the influence of its periodical overflowings.

The sultry north-west wind continued to blow strong in our faces; and whirlwinds were often observed sweeping up the course of the river, carrying the loose sand and withered wrack of the banks along with great violence. We continued looking out very anxiously for the natives, and felt not a little surprised that we had yet met with none. We saw many of the pitfalls dug by them for ensnaring the larger game, and sometimes with difficulty avoided falling into them.

The thorny mazes of the banks, and the rugged nature of the adjacent country, alike impeded us. All our horses still exhibited symptoms of great exhaustion, and some of them had become quite lame by wounding their feet in the stony paths. We proceeded, therefore, but slowly.

We had now advanced about fifty miles down the river without having met a single native; and knowing that its banks are far more densely inhabited than any other part of the Bushman or Koranna country, and observing also many of their dwellings recently deserted, we could not account for the apparent abandonment of this favourite region by its inhabitants. At length, in the course of this forenoon, as we were crossing a deep recess close to the margin of the river, we came suddenly upon a party of about thirty Korannas, seated under the shade of the wood. Our first sensation was that of lively pleasure at regaining the society of a peaceful and friendly race of men, (for our journey from the Colony had been but a dreary one;) but our joy was suddenly checked, by seeing the Korannas, the instant they observed us, start on their feet, and fly to their

arms; and I expected the next moment a shower of poisoned arrows to be poured in upon us. But Witteboy, with great presence of mind, threw himself from horseback, flung down his gun and ran towards them with extended arms—calling out in their own dialect, that we were friends. This instantly brought them to a parley, and we soon shook hands together with mutual satisfaction. We now learned that the cause of their alarm at our appearance was the conduct of the Namaqua robber Africaner, who, with a strong party of runaway slaves and bastards, keeps the whole of the adjoining tribes in terror, and has already reduced the greater part of them to destitution, by plundering them of their flocks and herds. On first seeing us, this party took us for some of Africaner's band, and had determined to resist to the uttermost. Their kraal, with the cattle, women, and children, was on the opposite side of the river, so that we could neither procure milk nor any other refreshment from them. They had crossed the river merely for the sake of hunting.

As soon as we came to a friendly understand-

ing with these people, I made inquiries respecting a great cataract which I had been informed existed in this vicinity. To my high satisfaction, I soon ascertained that it was not above seven or eight miles down the river; and as mid-day was scarcely passed, I determined to visit it immediately, and return to the Koranna camp to spend the night.

Leaving our two weakest horses, therefore, I set out with Witteboy and five of the Korannas, whom I engaged to accompany us on foot. As we approached the fall, the sound began to rise upon our ears like distant thunder. It was still, however, a work of some exertion to reach the spot, from which we were divided by a part of the river, and beyond that by a tract of wild woodland, several miles in extent. The main and middle branch of the Gariep, which forms the cataract, traverses a sort of island of large extent, covered with rocks and thickets, and environed on all sides by streams of water. Having crossed the southern branch, which at this season is but an inconsiderable creek, we continued to follow the Korannas for several miles through the dense acacia forests, while the thundering sound of the cataract in-

creased at every step. At length we reached a ridge of rocks, and found it necessary to dismount and follow our guides on foot. It seemed as if we were now entering the untrodden vestibule of one of Nature's most sublime temples; and the untutored savages who guided us, evinced by the awe and circumspection with which they trod, that they were not altogether uninfluenced by the *genius loci*. They repeatedly requested me to keep behind, and follow them softly, for the precipices were dangerous for the feet of men,—and the sight and sound of the cataract were so fearful, that they themselves regarded the place with awe, and ventured but seldom to visit it. At length the whole of them halted, and desired me to do the same. One of them stepped forward to the brink of the precipice, and having looked cautiously over, beckoned me to advance. I did so, and witnessed a curious and striking scene; but it was not yet the waterfall. It was a rapid formed by almost the whole volume of the river, compressed into a narrow channel of not more than fifty yards in breadth, whence it descended at an angle of nearly 45° , and rushing tumul-

tuously through a black and crooked chasm, among the rocks, of frightful depth, escaped in a torrent of foam. My swarthy guides, although this was unquestionably the first time that they had ever led a traveller to view the remarkable scenery of their country, evinced a degree of tact as *Ciceroni*, as well as natural feeling of the picturesque, that equally pleased and surprised me. Having forewarned me that this was not yet the waterfall, they now pioneered the way for about a mile farther along the rocks, some of them keeping near, and continually cautioning me to look to my feet, as a single false step might precipitate me into the raging abyss of waters,—the tumult of which seemed to shake even the solid rocks around us. At length we halted as before, and the next moment I was led to a projecting rock, where a scene burst upon me, far surpassing my most sanguine expectations. The whole water of the river (except what escapes by the subsidiary channel we had crossed, and by a similar one on the north side,) being previously confined to a bed of scarcely one hundred feet in breadth, descends at once in a magnificent cascade of fully four hun-

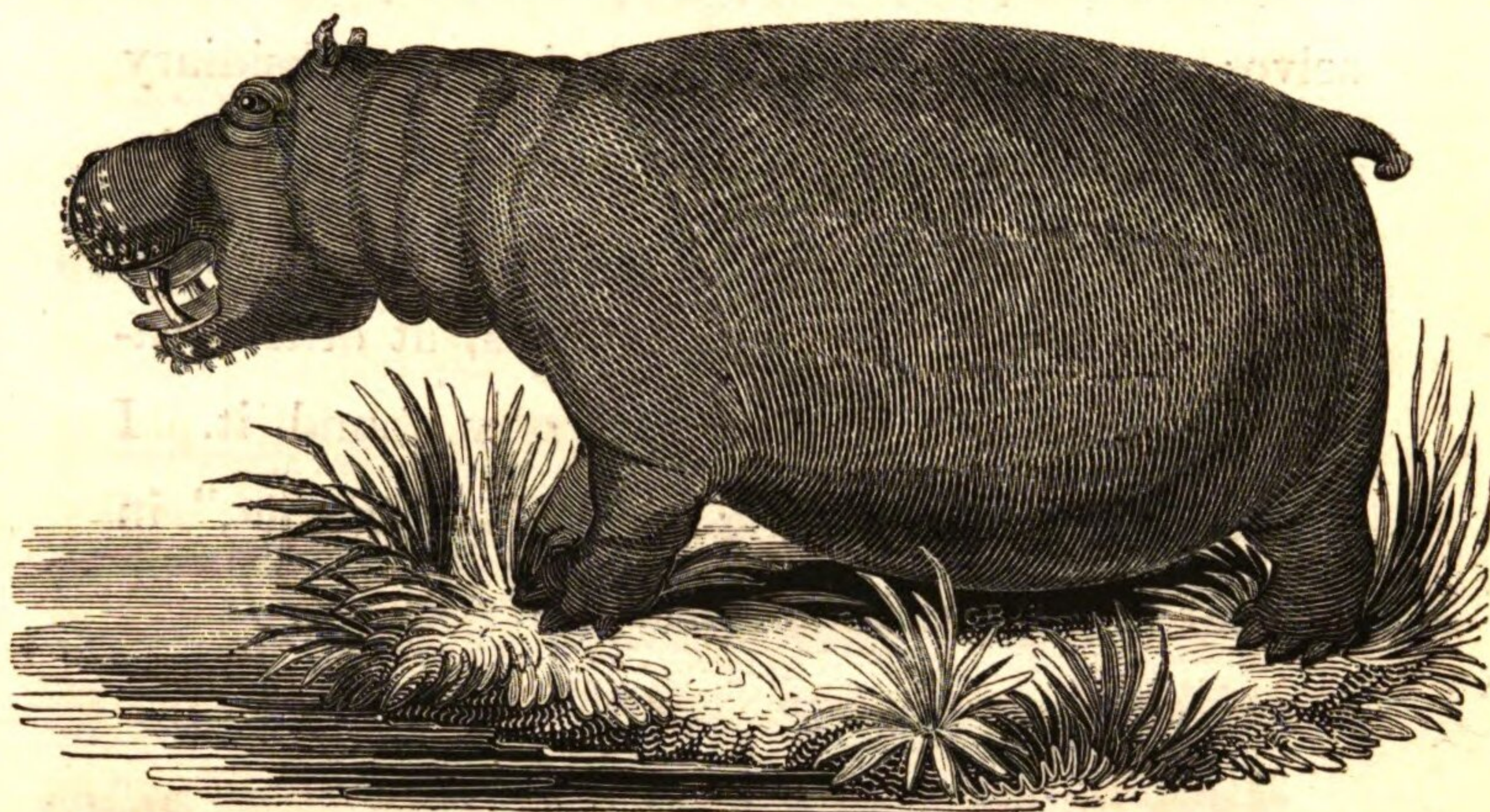
dred feet in height. I stood upon a cliff nearly level with the top of the fall, and directly in front of it. The beams of the evening sun fell full upon the cascade, and occasioned a most splendid rainbow; while the vapoury mists arising from the broken waters, the bright green woods which hung from the surrounding cliffs, the astounding roar of the waterfall, and the tumultuous boiling and whirling of the stream below, striving to escape along its deep, dark, and narrow path, formed altogether a combination of beauty and grandeur, such as I never before witnessed. As I gazed on this stupendous scene, I felt as if in a dream. The sublimity of Nature drowned all apprehensions of danger; and after a short pause, I hastily left the spot where I stood, to gain a nearer view from a cliff that more immediately impended over the foaming gulf. I had just reached this station, when I felt myself grasped all at once by four Korannas, who simultaneously seized hold of me by the arms and legs. My first impression was, that they were going to hurl me over the precipice; but it was a momentary thought, and it wronged the friendly savages.

They are themselves a timid race; and they were alarmed lest my temerity should lead me into danger. They hurried me back from the brink, and then explained their motive, and asked my forgiveness. I was not ungrateful for their care, though somewhat annoyed by their officiousness. I returned to my station to take a sketch of the scene; but my attempt was far too hurried, and too unworthy of its object, to please myself, or to be presented to the reader. The character of the whole of the surrounding scenery, full of rocks, caverns, and pathless woods, and the desolate aspect of the Gariepine mountains beyond, accorded well with the wild grandeur of the waterfall, and impressed me with feelings never to be effaced.

The river, after pouring itself out in this beautiful cascade, rushes along in a narrow chasm or canal, of about two miles in length, and nearly five hundred feet in depth, apparently worn in the solid rock, in the course of ages, by the force of the current.

In the summer season, when the river is in flood, the fall must be infinitely more magnificent; but it is probably at that season altogether inac-

cessible ; for it is evident, that the mass of waters, unable to escape by this passage, then pour themselves out in mighty streams by the two subsidiary channels, which were now almost dry, and at the same time overflow nearly the entire tract of forest land between them,—which forms, at other seasons, a sort of island, as we now found it. I named this scene “King George’s Cataract,” in honour of our gracious Sovereign.



CHAPTER V.

The Hippopotamus.—Obstacles to Cultivation.—Native mode of crossing the River.—Customs, Character, and Condition of the Koranna Tribes.

THE approach of evening, and the importunities of the Korannas, at length drew me reluctantly from the impressive scene I have vainly attempted to describe. We hastened back to their encampment, and I and my attendants fixed our bivouac for the night under an aged willow-tree, upon the very brink of the river.

In conversing about the waterfall, the Korannas mentioned that a hippopotamus had been killed by falling over it a short time before. But such an accident, they observed, seldom occurs, as the instinct of these animals leads them to avoid being carried by the current too near the rapid and rocky channels, and they usually pass such places by taking a circuitous course along the banks. The hippopotami are numerous in many parts of this river, and are occasionally caught by the natives, by means of huge pitfalls dug in the paths frequented by them, when they issue from the floods by night, to browse on the wooded banks. The capture of one of those enormous animals must be an event of jubilee and rejoicing to a whole horde of half-starved Bushmen or Korannas, sufficient to banish hunger and heaviness for weeks to come. The hippopotamus, though timid on shore, is sometimes a dangerous antagonist in the water. In the pairing season, especially, the natives dread much to encounter him in crossing the river. Mr. Moffat informed me, that once when he was passing Read's Drift, a Hottentot of his party was bit in two by one of those mon-

strous animals.* I learned from these people, that the Kuruman River, which rises in the Bechuana country, joins the Gariep a little below King George's Cataract; but that in the lower part of its course it is often dry for years together, like the Hartebeest torrent, on the southern side.

Being now somewhat tired of zebra's flesh, I endeavoured to obtain a little variety by bartering some of it with the Korannas for a piece of dried gemsbok; but the exchange was far from improving our fare,—the gemsbok was so tough that I preferred the zebra. Jacob, who had now sufficiently recovered his strength and spirits to crack a joke, observed, that if we lived much longer in this way, eating zebra to zebra, we should in time grow *striped*. This was considered good wit by the *beau monde* of the Gariepine banks. Witteboy and the Korannas laughed heartily at Jacob's *jeu d'esprit*, nor was I so fastidious as to refuse joining in their simple merriment.

16.—This morning was ushered in by the

* The figure in the vignette is copied from a drawing of a young hippopotamus, sketched upon another occasion.

signs of an approaching thunder-storm. On this account, and also further to recruit our horses, we resolved to spend another day with the Korannas. Like them, we took refuge from the coming tempest, and the deluge of rain which we expected with it, under the thickest foliage of the large willow-trees. A few days before, on the Hartbeest River, we should have been most grateful for a hearty drenching; now we rejoiced when a change of wind carried off the lowering clouds in a different direction, to refresh, probably, some distant spot of the thirsty wilderness.

At noon I bathed in the river, and found myself greatly refreshed by it. On examining the banks, I observed with regret the impracticability of leading out the water for irrigating the adjoining lands by dams and ditches,—the usual and only method of cultivating the soil in the interior of Southern Africa. The great elevation of the banks above the ordinary channel of the stream, along the whole course of the Gariep, so far as I have surveyed it, seems to preclude all prospect of success in any scheme of this sort, upon the plan commonly practised; but whether

advantage might not be taken of its natural overflowings to effect in some measure the same object, or whether some simple machinery, similar to the Egyptian wheel, might not be here successfully employed in irrigation, I do not feel competent to decide. It is a problem, in all appearance, not likely soon to be solved.*

In the course of the day I prevailed upon some of the Korannas, by a small present, to swim across the river, in order to bring me a supply of milk from their kraal. They returned in the evening with a wooden vessel filled with sour milk, which I divided with my Hottentots, and after our tasteless fare of dried zebra-flesh, we considered it a very delicious treat.

None of the tribes of Southern Africa, either in the interior, or on the coast, have any thing in the shape of a canoe or boat. The method

* The inhabitants of Griqua Town, under the direction of the Missionaries, have, however, I understand, lately undertaken to lead out the waters of the Gariep for irrigation in the ordinary manner near their chief settlement. Not having seen the spot fixed upon, I can form no opinion in regard to its practicability: but the attempt is at all events highly creditable to their enterprise.



G. Thompson Esq. del.

WILD DOGS OF SOUTH AFRICA.

London. Pub. by H. Colburn, Jan. 1827.

they adopt for passing a large river, and which I now saw practised, is very simple. Each man has a beam of wood with a peg at one end : grasping the peg with one hand, he sits astride, or lays himself flat upon his log, and paddles himself against the stream with his feet and other hand. This is a very inartificial contrivance, but it seems sufficient for every purpose required by these indolent children of nature.

During the course of the day I had much conversation with some of the most intelligent of the party with whom we were now associated, Witteboy and Jacob acting as interpreters. The following is a brief epitome of the information I obtained on this and other occasions, respecting the Koranna tribe or nation.

The Korannas are a race of pure Hottentots, who have attached themselves to the vicinage of the Great River, and from whose principal branches they seldom or never emigrate to any considerable distance. They are found along the whole course of the river, from the spot where I now was, upwards towards its sources, as far as it has yet been explored by Europeans. They are divided

into a great number of independent clans, or *kraals*, as they are termed in the Colonial phraseology. The party I was now with enumerated above thirty of these, who, in their own language, are distinguished by different appellations, indicative of some peculiarity in the materials of their dress, or mode of subsistence. A chief or captain presides over each clan or kraal, being usually the person of greatest property; but his authority is extremely limited, and only obeyed so far as it meets the general approbation. When ancient usages are not in the way, every man seems to act as is right in his own eyes. They are a pastoral people, and some of their kraals possess large herds of cattle, and also some sheep and goats. Their flocks of the latter, however, are not numerous, though they thrive remarkably well, and attain a large size. The difficulty of protecting them from the wild animals,* and of driving

* The most destructive of the beasts of prey to sheep and goats are the Wild Dogs, (already mentioned vol. i. p. 408,) numbers of which infest the banks of the Gariep, and plague the poor Korannas, not less than the Border boors. The annexed engraving gives a very accurate representation of these curious animals.

them from place to place in their frequent migrations, probably operates to prevent them from augmenting their flocks to any considerable amount. Many kraals possess neither sheep nor goats, but only cattle; and some few, as we have seen, having lost their cattle, have retrograded, from the pastoral to the hunter, or Bushman state.

The Korannas are continually roaming from place to place, according as the want of pasturage, or caprice, may dictate; and their moveable huts, composed of a few sticks, and a covering of mats, are carried along with them on their pack-oxen, which are uncommonly docile and well-trained.

Their language differs considerably from that of the Bushmen, but nearly resembles the dialects of the colonial Hottentots and the Namaquas. My guides, therefore, understood them with ease, while they could only understand such of the Bushmen fully as had been accustomed to visit the Colony. Their dress consists merely of the carosse, with an apron of skins for the females, and a sort of pouch used by the men, which last but indifferently serves the purposes of decency.

This is, indeed, the original dress of all the Hottentot tribes, and has been described with sufficient minuteness by former travellers.

In personal appearance, the Korannas are superior to any other race of Hottentots. Many of them are tall, with finely shaped heads, and prominent features, and an air of ease and good-humour about them which is very prepossessing. They are, in fact, a mild, indolent, and unenterprising race, friendly to strangers, and inclined to cultivate peace with all the tribes around them, except the Bushmen,—towards whom they bear inveterate animosity, on account of their continual depredations on their flocks and herds. Their wars with the Bushmen are said to be prosecuted with such rancour, that quarter is seldom given on either side, either to old or young. The weapons of both these tribes are similar,—only those of the Korannas are superior in size and workmanship, and their poisoned arrows are occasionally feathered.

Their only manufacture, besides their mats, arms, and dress, consists of some coarse earthenware, and a few wooden vessels carved with much

labour out of solid blocks of wood. Their knives and hatchets are purchased either from the Bechuanas or the Boors, for they do not work in iron.

The Koranna women have seldom more than four or five children. If they happen to have twins, (an event which rarely occurs,) one of them is destroyed in the same manner as with the Bushmen.

The disgusting marriage ceremony which Kolben says was practised among the colonial Hottentots in former times, has no existence among the Korannas; but a sort of aspersion with "holy water," such as he describes, is said actually to take place when the young men attain the age of puberty, and this custom probably gave rise to Kolben's story. The only marriage ceremony among the Korannas, that I could hear of, consists of a feast given by the bridegroom, and by the relatives of the bride, to all the kraal, if their wealth is sufficient to admit of it. They are fond of festivity, though rather averse to slaughter their cattle, except on great occasions; living usually on the milk alone, with the aid of wild roots, and

the game they kill in hunting. They are fond of singing and dancing by moonlight, and of amusing each other by relating fictitious adventures around their evening fires. Like all the other South African tribes, the Korannas possess the art of making a very intoxicating sort of mead or hydromel, by fermenting it with the juice of a certain root, of which, however, I was unable to procure any specimen. Some of the colonial Hottentots possess this secret, and frequently sell portions of the fermenting substance to the farmers for a large allowance of spirits or tobacco. The Gariepine tribes do not, however, appear to have the means of frequently indulging to excess in this inebriating beverage.

The Korannas are very subject to consumption, (as, indeed, are all the Hottentot tribes,) and more particularly to a disease called the blood-fever, which carries off great numbers of them. This distemper is thought by some to be owing to their frequent and sudden immersions in their favourite river, when they return profusely perspiring from the chase. By others it is ascribed to the unwholesome qualities of the water at cer-

tain seasons. It generally breaks outwardly in boils in some parts of the body, and, in this case, they make an incision round the part, and apply, with success, the gall and fat of certain animals. But if it breaks inwardly, there is no remedy, and the patient dies. This fever is confined to the banks of the Gariep, and rages with the greatest virulence in the months of February and March. For cuts and bruises they use the leaves of the buku, and one or two other plants, with good effect.

They have no religious ceremonies, and but very faint ideas of any state of futurity. Some of them say, that they had a tradition from their forefathers, that after death the spirits of men ascended, through a narrow gate in the clouds, into another world, where they existed after death, but that few put any faith in this tradition. But all allowed, that until the missionaries came among them, they had no clear idea of a supreme God, nor of a state of future rewards or punishments.

They are much addicted to a mischievous sort of witchcraft, or sorcery, somewhat similar to

that of the Caffer tribes, by means of which they often grievously torment each other ; and sometimes, as it is said, resort to worse than imaginary charms, and deal in philtres and poisons.

Their method of interment is the same as that peculiar to the other Hottentot tribes,—with the exception, perhaps, of the Bushmen. They first dig a grave in the usual form, and then excavate a recess in the one side of it, into which the corpse is introduced, wrapped in the carosse which the individual wore when living. The vacancy is then filled up with large stones and earth, to protect the body from the hyænas.

The Koranna clans, on the upper part of the Gariep and its branches, are all in amity or alliance with the Griquas, with whom they combine against the Bushmen, who are regarded as the Ishmaelites of Southern Africa. Through this connexion some of them have become possessed of fire-arms. Some clans, also, are in strict alliance with the Matchapee tribe of Bechuanas, and have frequent intermarriages with them. Those lower down the river have, of late years, suffered very severely from the depredations of the

robber Africaner, and other banditti who now swarm along the banks of the Gariep, and many kraals have been entirely deprived of their cattle. In this condition they are more destitute even than the Bushmen themselves; for though the poorer class of Korannas are accustomed at all times to live partly by hunting, and on insects and wild roots, they seem to have less ingenuity and perseverance in the pursuit of those precarious means of subsistence, than the crafty and enterprising sons of the desert, who depend on no other resources; and they are, consequently, reduced, in seasons of scarcity, to the extremity of misery, as has already been shown in the description of those whom we found on the Hartebeest River. It must, however, be allowed, that in the digging of pitfalls for the Hippopotami, and other large animals, the Korannas display a degree of industry and perseverance, (considering their implements,) not less remarkable than the Bushmen, and little to be expected from the general indolence of their disposition.



CHAPTER VI.

Departure from Waterfall Station.—Sufferings from Heat,
Thirst, and Hunger.—Bushman Vengeance.—Pella.
Despair of the Hottentots.—Namaqua Encampment.

AUG. 17.—At sunrise, when we prepared to proceed on our journey, we found our old horse reduced by the purgative effects of the bad water he had drunk in the Bushman country, to the last degree of exhaustion. He was quite incapable

of accompanying us, and we were consequently forced to abandon him to his fate. He was now too miserable an object even to be food to the natives ; and the probability is, that he would fall a prey to the ravenous hyænas in a night or two. Having made some trifling presents to each of the Korannas, they now came to take leave of us with much ceremony, and cheered us cordially as we rode off.

Having emerged from the wooded banks of the river, we passed some hills of smooth naked rock, each, to appearance, composed of an entire stone. In front, and to the left, the boundless desert plain then again stretched itself before us ; while on the right the rugged Gariepine ridge, skirted by the river and its woody banks, extended to the westward as far as the eye could reach. As we advanced, the country near the river became so rugged and inaccessible, that my guides considered it requisite to bend our course more to the south-west, with the view of falling in again with the Gariep at Pella, a Missionary station in the Namaqua country, about two days' journey below this. At that place we calculated on ob-

taining every necessary refreshment to recruit us for the rest of my projected excursion.

The plains which we now entered upon were entirely destitute of water, and only a few straggling gemsboks and springboks were browsing on the withered herbage. The occasional and precarious thunder-showers are, it appears, sufficient to maintain the hardy grasses of these regions, which, rushing up into hasty vegetation after rain, and as suddenly fading again under the parching drought, afford pasturage either in a green or withered state to myriads of wild animals, who migrate from place to place, according to the course of the seasons, and the abundance or scarcity of grass and water. It is from these tracts that the destructive flocks of *trek-bokken*, or migratory springboks, pressed by the long droughts, occasionally inundate the northern parts of the Colony.

At four P. M., after a long and dreary ride of about forty miles, we reached the bed of a river, near the bottom of a ridge of secondary mountains. Not being able to find any native appellation for either the river or mountain, I named

the latter after the Earl of Morpeth, and the former after my worthy friend, Mr. Pillans. We found a band of Korannas encamped at Pillans River; but they had come from the banks of the Gariep merely to hunt, and had brought no provisions with them, and only a little water in calabashes, none of which they could spare to us. After a search of about a mile up the bed of the torrent, however, we found a pit containing water, though so very brack that we could scarcely drink it. The pit, too, was so deep and narrow, that our horses could not get access to it, and with much labour and difficulty we lifted water in a tortoise-shell, and poured it into the cavities of the rocks, from whence they eagerly licked it up with their parched tongues. Here we took up our residence for the night, and after turning out our horses to graze, resorted to our knapsack to cook our supper. What was my chagrin, to find that my too generous—my most improvident attendants, had given away almost the whole of our dried zebra flesh to the Korannas at the waterfall,—and that we were once more on short

allowance, with this wretched water! To add to our privations, the night was exceedingly cold; and as we could not find wood to make a comfortable fire, we were frequently awakened by the chill piercing blast, and by the howling of the hungry hyænas. The Hottentots and I agreed in naming this "Miserable Station."

18.—Unable to find repose, we started about four A. M., and pursued our journey by moonlight. After an hour's ride, however, the Hottentots got so cold in the extremities, that they said they could not proceed. We therefore halted, kindled a fire, and waited till sunrise. The Africans, of all classes, are less capable of sustaining cold than Europeans, and much more readily affected, also, by atmospherical moisture.

We had passed the Morpeth ridge before we halted. These hills run from S. E. to N. W., terminating about twenty-five miles to the right on the Gariep. The Gariepine Walls were still the most prominent object on our right. Another extensive plain again lay before us, bounded far in the distance by another ridge of hills

(similar to those we had just passed,) which I called Carlisle ridge, in honour of the respected nobleman of that name.* On our left, in the direction of the Colony, the desert plains were bounded only by the horizon.

At sunrise we continued our march. The heat of the sun in the plains soon became as insupportable as the cold had been but a few hours ago; such are the sudden transitions of temperature. The excessive prevalence of nitre has, perhaps, no inconsiderable effect in increasing the nightly cold of these regions. We unsaddled after three hours' ride, and turned out our horses to graze; but though the plains were covered with dry herbage, they were unable to browse for want of water. Here we breakfasted on our last piece of zebra.

Our distance from Pella was still more than fifty miles, but seeing no prospect of obtaining either food or water before we arrived there, we resolved to make a grand push to reach it this day, if our jaded horses could possibly carry

* This ridge is termed "Kaabas Mountains" in Mr. Campbell's first journey.

us through. Pushing on again, therefore, we speedily came to the brink of a long valley, extending between us and the foot of the Carlisle Mountains, about fifteen miles across. It was, like the plains we had left, entirely destitute of water. We descended into it through some naked ravines of calcareous gravel, and found the heat, on reaching the bottom, quite overpowering. Water now appeared to us the most valuable and desirable of all objects. We saw some wandering Bushmen at a distance, but too remote to overtake and question on this subject. Our horses became at every step more exhausted; and at length, just as we got across this 'burning valley,' as we called it, one of them finally gave up, and we were forced to abandon him to his fate, a prey to the lions and hyænas. We now began to be seriously alarmed for our safety. To stop here was impossible. The horses could not support thirst another day; and if they failed before we reached water, we must perish ourselves. We threw away in desperation our pack-saddle, our powder-flasks,

and every thing that we could possibly spare to lighten us, for our horses were now reduced to three, and these, from their previously exhausted condition, and particularly from the want of water, could not be expected to hold out many hours longer. The horse is an animal far less able to endure thirst than the ox; and on this account the latter is much preferred by travellers in dry countries.

At sunset we gained the foot of the Carlisle Mountains. Their height was apparently about 2000 feet, and I expected we should have to climb them with our weary steeds. I found, however, that my guides knew better, having been instructed by the Korannas to cross by a narrow pass which winds through the midst of them. This we happily succeeded in finding, and it led us through without a single step of ascent. It was one of the most bold and picturesque defiles I have ever seen,—winding through the bowels of the mountains, which rise on either hand in abrupt precipices, at least 1000 feet in height, and looked as if it had been

originally torn by some convulsion of nature, through the solid mass of rock. It was twilight when we passed through, which increased the sombre and solemn effect of the scenery, with its rocks and caverns rising around us in dim perspective. This *poort*, or pass, has received an appellation, signifying in the Namaqua and Bushman tongues, "Howling of the big men," from a circumstance which is said by the natives to have occurred at a distant period. A party of Boors had left the Colony to survey the banks of the Gariep, in hopes, perhaps, of discovering in these remote regions a land flowing with milk and honey, with none to dispute their occupation of it, but the feeble and famished natives. Whether they had committed any aggressions on the Bushmen in their route I did not learn, but they were waylaid in this defile on their return by the crafty and vindictive savages, and many of them slain by showers of stones and poisoned arrows: and from the dismal howling they made in their flight, the pass received its name. This story is at least an evidence of the feelings which the arrogant oppressions of the

white men have excited among the tribes of the desert.*

On emerging from this gloomy ravine (where we were not altogether free from apprehension of meeting from the Bushmen a reception similar to that of the boors), the twilight was closing around, and we could just perceive that an extensive prospect opened to the westward, over

* The following verses are designed to express the sentiments with which these persecuted tribes may be supposed to regard the Colonists :

SONG OF THE WILD BUSHMAN.

LET the proud Boor possess his flocks,
And boast his fields of grain ;
My home is 'mid the mountain rocks,
The desert my domain.
I plant no herbs nor pleasant fruits,
Nor toil for savoury cheer :
The desert yields me juicy roots,
And herds of bounding deer.
The countless springboks are my flock,
Spread o'er the boundless plain ;
The buffalo bends to my yoke,
And the wild horse to my rein :
My yoke is the quivering assagai,
My rein the tough bow-string ;
My bridle curb is a slender barb—
Yet it quells the forest king.

a plain sprinkled here and there with detached hills. We now considered ourselves in Namaqualand, and steered our course direct for Pella, keeping the Carlisle Mountains close upon our right. Holding on as fast as the darkness and deplorable condition of our horses would permit, we travelled along, exhausted with thirst, hunger, and fatigue. Every hour seemed three times its usual length, and every minute I ex-

The crested adder honoureth me,
And yields, at my command,
His poison bag, like the honey bee,
When I seize him on the sand.
Yea, even the locusts' wasting swarm,
Which mightiest nations dread,
To me brings joy in place of harm,
For I make of them my bread.

Thus I am lord of the Desert Land,
And I will not leave my bounds,
To crouch beneath the Christian's hand,
And kennel with his hounds :
To be a hound, and watch the flocks,
For the cruel white man's gain—
No! the swart Serpent of the Rocks
His den doth yet retain ;
And none who there his sting provokes
Shall find its poison vain !

T. P.

pected our horses would give up and leave us abandoned in the desert. One of them was so much exhausted, that whenever we came to a piece of sandy ground it dropped down as if it had been shot, with Witteboy on its back.

After travelling nearly three hours in this miserable fashion, my Hottentots imagined that we must now be in the immediate vicinity of Pella. But hour after hour elapsed, and still we travelled on. We knew we could not miss the place, from its position at the foot of the mountains; but it seemed as if we were continually moving without getting nearer the much wished-for asylum, where all our sufferings we hoped would terminate. Thus we travelled onward for other three tedious hours. At length, with a joyful voice, Jacob called out "Water!" looked down, and caught the glimmering reflection of a star at my horse's feet. The two Hottentots had already flung themselves from horseback, and were lying flat on their bellies, sucking in the refreshing moisture which oozed through the sand in a scarcely perceptible streamlet. I was soon beside them, and for

several minutes all was silent save the sound made by our horses greedily sucking up the water beside us. I thought we should have actually drained the little fountain dry before we ceased. Never was relief more seasonable.

We were now aware that we were in the immediate vicinity of Pella; but as it was very dark, and long past midnight, and we were excessively fatigued, we made fast our horses, and flung ourselves down beside them, supperless as we were, and without a fire.

19.—Too wearied and cold to sleep, I watched impatiently for the return of day to light us to the friendly horde of Namaquas, and the hospitable mansion of their missionary pastor. And as soon as daybreak began to glimmer over the mountains, I listened eagerly for the crowing of cocks, the bark of dogs, the lowing of cattle, or some other cheering evidence of the neighbourhood of men. But all was still and silent. As the dawn advanced, and objects became more distinct, we found ourselves within two hundred yards of a house. I started up, and advanced to it; but what was my dismay to find the

whole station totally deserted. Not a human being, nor a living creature remained ! The hearts of the Hottentots sank within them, and I saw deep dejection overspread their countenances. As for myself, though naturally of an elastic and sanguine temper, I confess, I now also felt appalled, and could with difficulty repress the conviction that we were really doomed to perish for want in this drear and desolate country.

On examining the place in search of something to quell the cravings of nature, I found a small neat building erected to serve the double purpose of church and school, and near it the habitation of the Missionary. The Namaquas themselves live, like the Korannas, in huts covered with mats, which they carry with them on pack-oxen, when they remove from place to place. I found abundance of fine water, sufficient to irrigate a few gardens, and was at a loss to account for the desertion of the station, or to the failure of the pasturage, or to the plundering inroads of Africaner and his robber gang. How to discover where the Missionary and his

flock were fled, or where else to find succour, was now the difficulty which I knew not how to surmount.

After ransacking every nook, and even committing a sort of sacrilege, by breaking into the little chapel, we returned to the spot where we had halted, without being able to find any thing in the shape of food, or any clue to direct us in the pursuit of the roaming inhabitants.

My Hottentots were exceedingly dejected. This was the place they had all along looked forward to for refreshment, and supplies for the rest of our journey. Every previous hardship they had supported with comparative patience; but their courage and confidence were now utterly gone, and they told me bluntly that they would follow me no farther. They had made up their minds, they said, to start about noon, as soon as the horses were a little rested and refreshed, and would endeavour to make their way back to the Colony, by the nearest route; riding the horses as far as they could carry them, and when they fell, to cut them up for food, and continue their journey on foot. It was in vain that I represented to them

the desperate nature of such a project; that to the Colony was a journey of several days, even on fresh horses; that our exhausted ones could not possibly, without refreshment, carry us a single day longer; and that they could never get through the wilderness on foot: while, on the other hand, by proceeding perhaps only a few hours farther westward, we could scarcely fail of falling in with the Missionaries, or with some hordes of friendly Namaquas, where we should find food and shelter; or, at the worst, we were now within easy reach of the Gariep, and might find game on its banks, or kill one of our horses to support us there, till we could hear tidings of the Missionaries or Namaquas. It was in vain, however, that I thus reasoned with them. They told me doggedly, that they had made up their minds not to remain in this frightful country to perish at last of thirst or hunger; and that I might do as I chose, but they would start for the Colony at noon.

The obstinacy of my men disconcerted me more than any thing that had yet occurred. I wandered to the neighbouring heights, and gazed over

the solitary plains; but not a human being—not a living creature met my view. I returned to the Hottentots, and found them, to my surprise, cooking something on the embers. On inquiry, I found it was a piece of zebra skin, which we had brought with us, to make shoes for the feet of the horses lamed by the flinty roads. This skin, having been beaten between two stones to make it tender, and the hair singed off, I joined them at breakfast on it, and found considerable relief from this sorry fare, coarse and unpalatable as it was.*

Noon was now approaching, when the Hottentots had fixed to leave me, unless I agreed to accede to their plan, and accompany them back to the Colony; a plan, not only subversive of all my schemes for farther exploring the country, but, in our circumstances, attended with imminent danger of perishing in the wilds. I seated myself at a little distance from them, weighing in my own mind, whether it would be preferable to

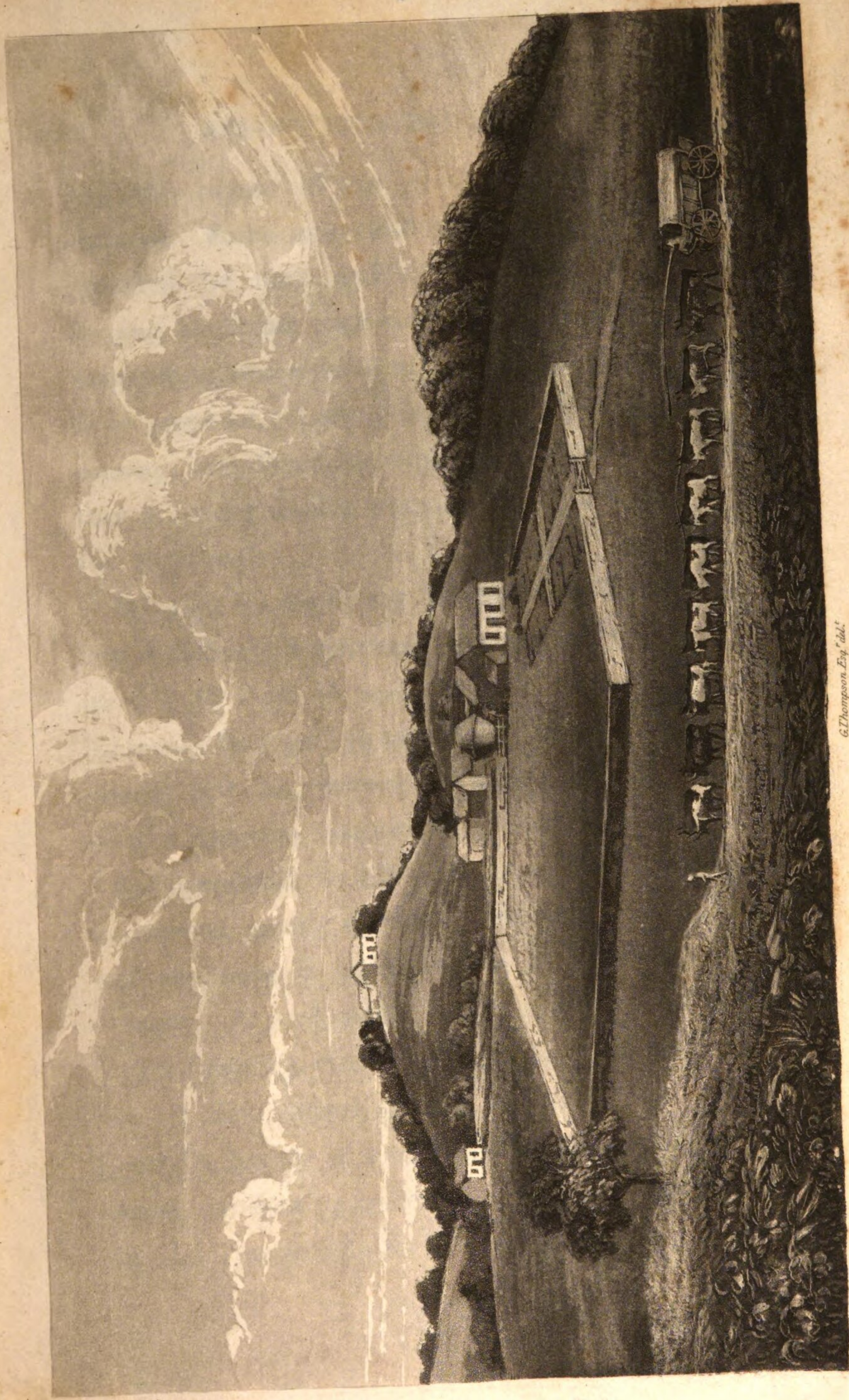
* The vignette prefixed to this chapter will convey to the reader a pretty accurate portrait of my Hottentot guides, as they were wont to sit at ease by our evening watch-fires—smoking and chatting by turns. It is engraved from one of Dr. Heurtley's admirable sketches.

agree to their proposal, or remain here without them, and attempt to search out some Namaqua kraal, by following the course of the Gariep. While thus sadly ruminating, I turned my eyes to the south-west, and beheld two people approaching. I called joyfully to the Hottentots, and Witteboy and I immediately set off to meet them. They proved to be two Griquas, or Bastard Hottentots, belonging to a hunting-party at some distance, who had come here in search of water. They had no provisions with them, but they gave us the grateful information, that Mr. Bartlet, the Missionary, was now at a place called t'Kams, about twenty miles to the westward. This was joyful news to us. Twenty miles was, indeed, a dreary journey for men so hungry, and with horses so much exhausted as ours; but it was nothing to the difficulties we had just before contemplated. My Hottentots again willingly submitted themselves to my orders, and proceeded with alacrity to saddle our horses, in order to leave the desolate station of Pella.

This missionary station (belonging to the London society) is placed in a very low situation

under the Carlisle, or Kaabas Mountains, which rise here in frowning grandeur, almost perpendicularly, to the height of about 2000 feet. This ridge terminates at the Gariep, about half an hour's walk from Pella. The river flows through a narrow and rocky pass, forming a rapid between the Carlisle and Gariepine ridges. The situation of Pella seems well selected, but I believe the great prevalence of saltpetre in the soil renders it but little productive for vegetables. I observed, however, several ebony trees, which had been transplanted from the banks of the river, growing here in great luxuriance. Along the Gariep, both the black and white ebony is found in abundance.

After a tedious journey of about five hours, (our horses not being able to move faster than a walk,) we espied the cattle and encampment of the Missionary and his people,—the most pleasing sight we had beheld since we left the Colony. On our approach Mr. Bartlet came forth to meet us, and gave me a most cordial welcome, though he seemed not a little surprised at my visit, and at my strange appearance. Being ushered into his little hut, I explained the occasion of my journey,



G. Thompson Esq. del.

THORNHILL, NEAR PORT FRANCES.

London. Publ^d by H. Colburn, Jan^y 1827.

and the nature of the privations I had lately endured. Some meat and tea were immediately prepared for me ; and as I expressed a great longing for bread, some corn lately procured from Kamiesberg was ordered to be ground, and a cake to be prepared. Corn is no where raised in this country, and bread is consequently accounted rather a luxury than a necessary of life, even with the Missionaries.

In order to regale my Hottentots after their late sufferings, I purchased a whole sheep, and gave it to them to revel upon to their hearts' content. In regard to myself, Mr. Bartlet's hospitality left me nothing to desire. When the worthy man was informed of the route by which I had come, and the difficulties I had encountered, he seemed greatly surprised, and was most kind and assiduous in his attentions to promote my comfort. A good supper was prepared for me, at which I again partook of bread—that best staff of life. I then retired to rest, and once more enjoyed the luxury of a comfortable bed and sound repose, without apprehension of danger through the night, or anxiety for the morrow.

20.—A bright and beautiful spring morning awakened me to survey this pastoral station. It is watered by a spring from the rugged mountain which overhangs the encampment. The adjoining plains are covered with grass which grows all in separate tufts, like the hair on the head of a Hottentot. From this feature the spot derives its name *t'Kams*, a term signifying “tufted grass,” in the Namaqua dialect.

Only a small party of from thirty to forty Namaquas were at present residing with the Missionary. When his congregation are all collected at Pella, they amount to about 400 souls; but the severe droughts, and consequent failure of pasturage, force them occasionally to disperse themselves in divisions over the country wherever a spring of water exists with grass in the vicinity for their flocks. It was on this account that Pella, though well supplied with water, was at this time entirely deserted. Such an unsettled and roving life is undoubtedly very adverse to the progress of civilization; but the nature of the country is such, that a people like the Namaquas must be nomadic, and the Missionaries

must of necessity accompany them in their wanderings. As soon as rain falls, the pastures at Pella will instantly spring up, and the scattered divisions of the people will again be re-assembled.

Mr. Bartlet was now living in a small cabin covered with mats, in the same simple fashion as his followers. This worthy man was unwearied in his attention to me, and, to recruit my wasted strength, had a fresh meal served up to me every two or three hours; so that I soon made up for my former privations, and felt myself so much recovered in the course of this day, that I made arrangements to proceed on my journey the following morning.

I spent the whole day in walking about and conversing with Mr. Bartlet, and in taking notes of the information I obtained from him, and the most intelligent of his people, respecting the present state of the Namaqua tribes, and of the country they inhabit. This information, together with what I have elsewhere collected on the same subject, will be found condensed into the following Chapter.

CHAPTER VII.

The Namaquas.—Extent and Character of their Country.—Manners and Mode of Life.—Heat of the Climate.—Venomous Reptiles and Insects.—The Robber Africaner.—The Damara Nation.—Disorderly State of the Bastard Population along the Banks of the Gariep.

THE Namaquas are a race of Hottentots inhabiting the country adjoining to the coast on both sides of the Gariep. They are a pastoral people, resembling the Korannas, and the aboriginal tribes of the Colony, in their general characteristics; living chiefly on milk; addicted to a roaming life; and of a disposition mild, indolent, and unenterprising. Mr. Barrow visited some of their kraals in the vicinity of the Kamiesberg, during his excursions in the Colony thirty years ago, and his brief notices, written with his usual felicity, and power of observation, still afford the only ac-

count of this people worthy of perusal. It falls now to my office to fill up a little more fully the sketch so ably and accurately drawn by him.

The country of this tribe is usually distinguished on the maps by the names of Great and Little Namaqualand. The latter division, whatever may have been its original extent, is now confined to the acute angle, extending between the sea-coast and the Gariep, and bounded on the south and east by the Koussie River, and the Carlisle Mountains. Great Namaqualand is a country of a much larger and more undefined extent. It extends about 200 miles northward, from the banks of the Gariep, and about the same distance eastward, from the sea-coast, towards the interior. From the Bechuana country it is separated by an extensive tract of desert, totally uninhabitable on account of the want of water. On the north it is bounded by the country of the Damaras. A great part of this territory consists of an extensive plain, or valley, watered, or rather drained, by a stream, called the Fish River by Vaillant, and erroneously described in his map, and in Burchell's, on his authority, as falling into the sea

to the northward of Angra Pequina Bay. This river I have ascertained to be a branch of the Gariep, and have distinguished it by the name of my friend and partner Mr. A. Borradaile. It joins the Gariep at no great distance from the mouth of that river, and after heavy rains is said to be a stream of great magnitude; but, like other occasional rivers, its channel seems to be for the greater part almost empty, and only re-appears here and there in stagnant pools. Such as it is, however, it is next to the Gariep, the principal river of the Namaqua country; and in the dry season its banks are resorted to by a great number of the natives. Another river of some importance, called the Kooisip, is described as falling into the sea farther to the northward; but as I could not obtain any very distinct intelligence of its course or character, it is not inserted in the map. Altogether, Namaqualand is a dry and desolate country, enlivened only here and there by a few permanent fountains, which supply the natives and their cattle in the seasons of drought, which are long and frequent. The great valley of *Borradaile* is divided from the sea-coast by a range of rugged

hills of no great elevation, which seem to run on to the ridge which I have named the Gariepine walls.

The soil of Namaqualand is in general light and sandy, and thinly clothed with a sort of grass that rushes suddenly up into vegetation after the precarious rains which the climate affords, and furnishes sufficient pasturage for numerous herds of cattle and wild animals. Some of the plains towards the sources of the Borradaile River are reported to be much more fertile in pasturage than the rest of the country, and there are scattered here and there a few copious fountains, which the Missionaries consider eligible situations for permanent villages.

The Namaquas are divided, like all the Hottentot tribes, into a variety of separate clans, governed (if such a term can be used for their rude polity) by a chief, whose authority is very circumscribed and precarious. The kraals bordering upon the Colony have been long ago extirpated, or reduced into servitude by the boors. The extensive plains, lying between the Gariep and the Kamiesberg, are represented, by old writers, as

occupied by a numerous race of people, possessed of large flocks and herds, and living in ease and abundance. Of these, the tribe now resident at Pella and its vicinity, is the only one remaining. It is named (after a sort of bee that associates amicably with the common sort) *Obseses*, probably from this horde being formed from the association of several smaller ones. In great Namaqualand the population appears also to be rapidly decreasing, from causes to which I shall speedily advert, but the following clans are mentioned as still existing there, and some of them as being numerous: the Nannimap, Koerissimap, Kanna-map-arrisip, Haikammap-koowoosip, Tsaumap, Tsaugamap, Karramap, Aimap, Kanma-tsawep, Gandemap, &c.

The Namaquas live in moveable huts, resembling, in all respects, those of the Korannas, excepting that they are rather larger in size, and the floor is usually excavated to the depth of a foot, or eighteen inches, below the level of the adjoining soil. They have no stations that can strictly be called permanent, but roam from place to place with their flocks and herds and house-

hold utensils, according as the want of water and pasturage may require.

Even Pella, which the Missionaries have been endeavouring for these dozen years to establish as a village, is, as we have seen, occasionally deserted for months together; and such are the peculiarities of the soil and climate, that it seems extremely doubtful whether the wandering habits of the people can ever, to any considerable extent, be overcome.

They have a breed of sheep different from those of the Colony, being destitute of the large tails characteristic of the latter. Their dress, manners, superstitions, and mode of life, resemble, in almost all respects, those of the old colonial Hottentots, except in so far as some of them have been partially enlightened and improved by intercourse with the Missionaries, to whom they seem to be sincerely attached.

The climate of Namaqualand is much hotter and drier than that of the east coast. On the immediate banks of the Gariep, which are, in this quarter, considerably below the elevation of the surrounding country, the heat in the summer

months is very intense. The thermometer then frequently rises to 120° —a temperature not easily supported by the natives, much less by Europeans. At such seasons, should a cow or ewe drop the calf or lamb, out of the shade, in the heat of the day, it instantly expires. The numerous reptiles and insects, common to the Colony, grow here to a larger size, and possess a more dangerous character. The formidable snake, known in the Colony by the name of cobra-capella, is said sometimes to attain the length of fifteen feet, and the puff-adder, ten. Mr. Bartlet assured me that he had actually seen a scorpion upwards of half a foot in length—but I suspect the good man must, in this instance, have been under some mistake, or unconsciously guilty of some degree of exaggeration. Tarantulas and other venomous spiders are numerous and deadly. I was told of a woman who had been recently bit by a very small spider in the toe, and had, in consequence, fallen into convulsions, and died in a few hours.

A species of crocodile is reported to exist in the Gariep, but I am persuaded it is the leguan,

which is found in many parts of the Colony, and is a very harmless animal. It is, however, certain that the boa constrictor is occasionally found so far south as the Gariep. Snakes of the length of forty or fifty feet are said to exist, and instances are related by the natives of the larger antelopes, and even cows, being occasionally attacked by them. Reports of very enormous serpents being sometimes discovered in the secret recesses of the rocks and mountains, have long been known to prevail among the Bechuana and Caffer tribes, and even among the colonial Hottentots; but have been generally discredited by travellers. I have, however, in my possession part of the skin of a great serpent killed by the natives near the Kuruman, which has been subjected to the inspection of Dr. Smith, superintendent of the South African Museum and ascertained to belong to the boa.

Fish are found in the Gariep, near its mouth, in considerable numbers. After the periodical floods, they are often left in shallow pools by the retiring waters, and are then caught by the natives, by means of rush mats, used in place of

nets. Some are said to measure six or seven feet in length, being probably of the sort known at Cape Town by the name of snook or pike. Though good and wholesome food, (except at one particular season,) they are not much relished by the natives, who from some prejudices, probably of a superstitious nature, are generally averse to eating fish. By the Caffer tribes, all sorts, except shell-fish, are held in abhorrence, as unclean. It is, however, remarkable, that a disease prevails among the fish in this river, similar to that which affects the inhabitants, and the animals who drink its waters after the periodical floods; and which seems to prove that the Gariep then acquires some unwholesome taint from the soil washed by its redundant streams.

The Namaqua tribes, formerly rich in sheep and cattle, passing an easy and unmolested life, except from occasional skirmishes with the wandering Bushmen, have of late years been assailed by a race of far more formidable enemies. About fifteen years ago, a Bastard Hottentot named Africaner, collected a band of people of his own race, runaway slaves, and other desperadoes;

and having by some means procured fire-arms, commenced a regular system of depredation upon the defenceless Namaquas and Korannas, plundering them of great numbers of their cattle, which he exchanged again with some unprincipled colonists for farther supplies of arms and ammunition. This continued until the robber chief was converted to Christianity, and to a decent and sober course of life, by one of the Missionaries, who, at the hazard of his life, paid a visit to him with that beneficent view. His conversion was sincere; and, from a lawless bandit, he became an estimable and exemplary man, and the friend and protector of those whom he had formerly persecuted. But, unfortunately, this happy state of tranquillity was but of brief duration; Africaner died, and on his decease, his son, of the same name, and the majority of his followers, speedily reverted to their former course, and have become as formidable and destructive as ever to the helpless tribes around them.*

* Mr. Moffat, after the conversion of old Africaner, was stationed for some years at his kraal, and had considerable success in instructing his wild followers; but was afterwards

This band now amounts to more than 300 men, and have in their possession about 200 muskets, partly taken by force from some of the Koranna hordes, and partly acquired by illicit traffic with traders from the Colony. After robbing the inoffensive Korannas and Namaquas of the greater part of their cattle, they have recently made several successful expeditions against the Damaras, and are the scourge and terror of the whole of this part of Africa.

Of the Damara nation, who inhabit the west coast beyond Great Namaqualand, I received the following accounts from the Missionaries and other persons who had visited them. They are a people of Caffer race, speaking a dialect similar to that of the Bechuanas. Their country is more fertile than that of the Namaquas, so

withdrawn by his Society, to conduct the more important mission among the Bechuanas. On the death of Africaner, which occurred about two years afterwards, the orderly part of his people removed to the missionary stations in Namaqualand, and the rest reverted to the bandit and brutal state from which they had been half retrieved. For civilized man to sink back to the savage state is an easy and every-day process; but to raise the savage to civilization requires a thousand levers,—and a thousand links to hold him there.

that they are enabled successfully to cultivate millet, pumpkins, beans, and the other vegetables commonly used by other tribes of the same race. They also possess numerous herds of cattle, and are not, as Barrow has erroneously stated, on the authority of a refugee of their nation, obliged to procure a precarious subsistence, by bartering with the neighbouring tribes the ornaments which they manufacture from the native copper ore of their country. It is, however, certain that very rich copper ore is found there in abundance, and is smelted and wrought by them in the manner described by Barrow. Specimens of this ore have been brought to Cape Town

The Damaras are associated in larger communities than the Korannas or Namaquas, are governed by hereditary chiefs, practise circumcision, and live in villages substantially constructed in the Bechuana fashion. The clans nearest to the Colony are known by the names of the Ghoup, the Nevis, the Gamaqua, and the Kurars. These are, however, evidently not their native appellations, but names of Hottentot

origin. Like the Matchapees, they also use bows and arrows, as well as assagais. It seems probable that both they and the Matchapees have adopted the bow and poisoned arrows of the Hottentots, from their close intercourse with tribes of that race; for neither the Bechuana farther to the northward, nor any of the tribes of Southern Caffers, use the bow, or ever poison any of their weapons.

The Damaras are separated from the Bechuana tribes to the eastward by an extensive desert, destitute of water, and consequently uninhabited. It is, however, occasionally crossed, after the rainy season, by parties of the Matchapee and Karrikarri clans, who, when not engaged in wars nearer home, relieve the tedium of existence, by going on expeditions to plunder their weaker neighbours. Some of the Damara chiefs informed the Missionaries who visited them, that there is an island on their coast where ships sometimes anchor, and barter iron for cattle. In latitude 22° , (which must be in the country of the Damaras, or of one of the tribes of the same family,) Captain Chapman of

the *Espiègle* sloop of war, discovered in 1824 a large stream, which he has called the Nourse River in honour of the late respected Commodore of that name. The river he describes to be about three miles broad at the mouth, and though obstructed, like too many of the African streams, with a bar across the entrance, it was, when he examined it, easily accessible to small craft, having nine feet of water on the bar, and without any surf. The country adjoining, and for a large extent along the coast, is described as verdant and well wooded, and abounding with wild animals, particularly elephants and buffaloes. The mouth of the Nourse River, therefore, may possibly prove to be a far more favourable station for commercial intercourse with the natives than the mouth of the Gariep, which is scarcely accessible (as I have ascertained) even for boats, while its course for several hundred miles upwards is obstructed by numerous falls and rapids, and scarcely to be considered as capable of affording any facilities for inland navigation. Besides this, the country on the lower part of its course is, as we have seen, exceed-

ingly barren and desolate, and peopled only by a few wandering Hottentot hordes, oppressed with poverty, and distracted by internal warfare.

The present state of things on the banks of the Gariep appears indeed to call loudly for the interference of the Colonial Government. This region has become of late years a place of resort for numerous bands of banditti, consisting chiefly of Bastard Hottentots and runaway slaves. Afrikaner's band has been mentioned, and there are others less considerable along the course of the river. Since my visit to Griqua Town, the divisions in that community have broken out into open war, between the different factions. A large proportion of the disaffected have removed to the mountains east of the Zeekoe River, and have again betaken themselves to the lawless and bandit life, from which the Missionaries, after years of danger and difficulty, had happily reformed them. They have plundered the helpless Bechuana clans to the eastward in the most unprovoked and cruel manner. They have destroyed or dispersed whole tribes, by robbing them of their cattle and even their children,

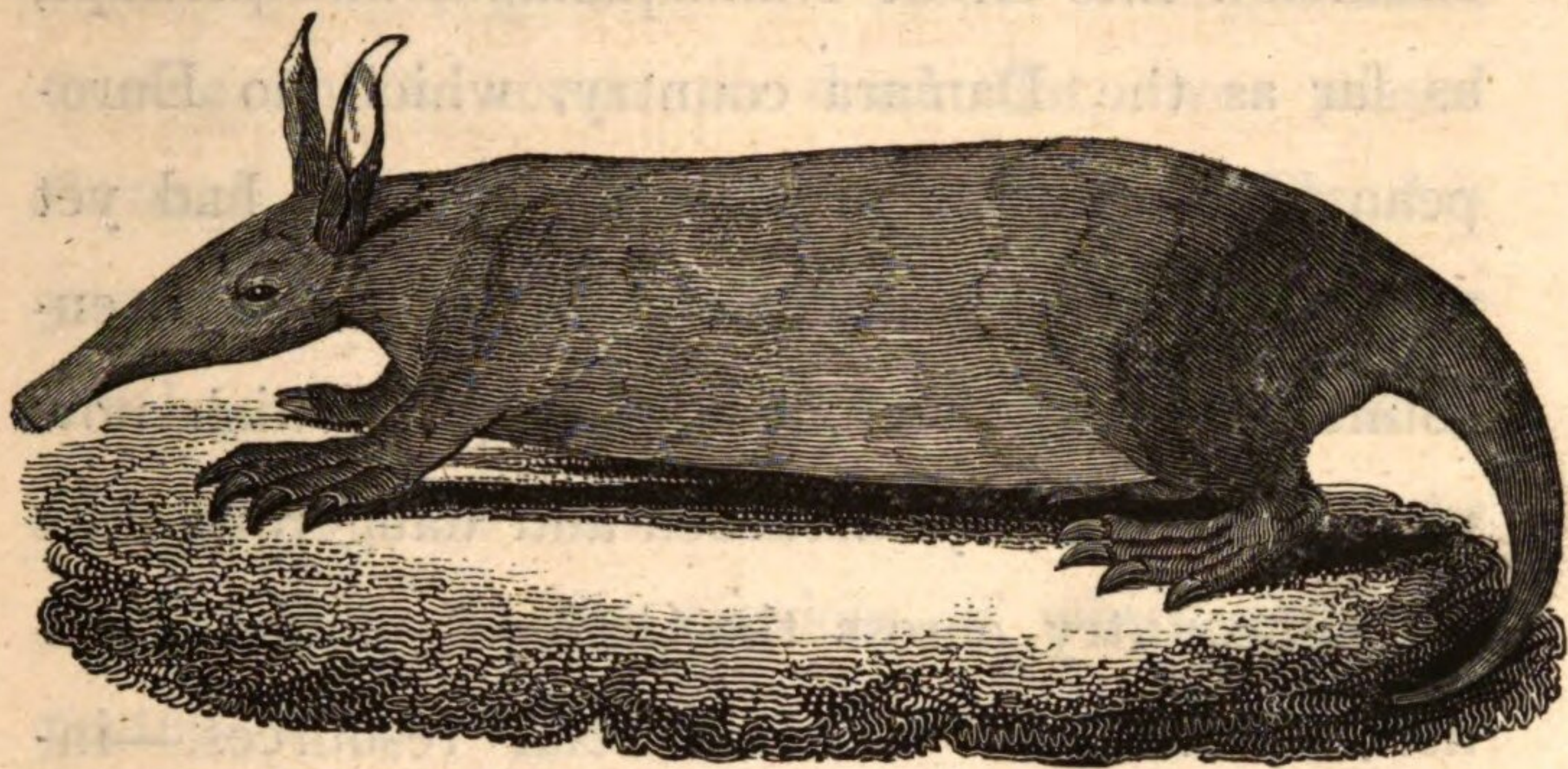
emulating the ferocity and augmenting the miseries inflicted by the savage Mantatees. This deplorable state of things now prevails, (or at least prevailed at the time of my visit to Namaqualand) from the sources of the Gariep to its mouth. The Griqua or Bastard population is spread along the banks of that river for an extent of at least seven hundred miles. Their numbers altogether are estimated to amount to nearly five thousand souls, and they have now in their possession, I am convinced, at least seven hundred muskets. Notwithstanding all the proclamations to the contrary, they readily obtain constant supplies of ammunition from the Boors, whom the great profits tempt to carry on this traffic in defiance of the Colonial regulations and of the claims of humanity. While at t'Kams I was informed that a farmer was then on the river with a large supply of gunpowder, which he was bartering with the Bastards for cattle, acquired by plunder. The profits of this smuggling traffic must be immense, for this fellow received, for every pound of gunpowder which he sold to these banditti, an ox or cow.

I do not mean to allege that all the Griqua population have become robbers and oppressors of the native tribes. An honourable exception must be made in favour of the principal community at Griqua Town, under the control of Mr. Melvill and the Missionaries, whom I have described in my former journey. But all the disaffected and disorderly spirits, who have either separated themselves from this community, or have fled from the Colony, to other quarters of the Gariepine wilderness, are now associated into bands of outlaws, who subsist more or less by plundering the helpless natives.

This state of affairs is too discreditable to the Colonial Government to be longer permitted to exist. For though these disorders have doubtless originated without its knowledge, and have continued in defiance of its laws, yet now that Government has become aware of them, it is its obvious duty to adopt energetic measures for their suppression. What may be the best method for effecting this object, it would be rash for a cursory traveller to profess to decide. But

the extension of the boundary of the Colony to the Gariep, seems to be on many accounts expedient; and is a measure now earnestly desired by the native tribes themselves. In proposing such an extension of the boundary, I am far from advocating the system that has too long prevailed of continually extending the occupation of the country by the colonial farmers. My sentiments on this point will be expressed hereafter. But by making this Great River the limit of our sway to the north, we should place at once an excellent natural barrier between the Colony and the independent tribes beyond it; and we should extirpate the banditti who now infest its banks, by recalling the Griqua clans by mild, equitable, and prudent measures, under our Government, and locating them permanently under the control of proper magistrates, supported by proper authority. If an advanced post of military were considered necessary, or a new seat of provincial magistracy were required to watch over the interests of the native tribes, and check abuses by the Colonists and Grikwas,

probably the Kamiesberg may be found the most suitable position, and the Missionary settlement already there would, in such an event, afford many facilities for the establishment of a prosperous village.



CHAPTER VIII.

Departure from t'Kams.—Grassy Plains.—Goubus Fountain.
— Old Missionary and Schoolmaster. — Arrival at Kamiesberg.—General remarks on the South African Missionaries.

AUGUST 21.—HAVING procured, with Mr. Bartlet's friendly aid, four fresh horses and two new guides, I here paid off Witteboy and Jacob, and left them to return to the Colony at their leisure, when they, and the exhausted horses which I had brought from Hantam, had sufficiently recovered strength. My original plan had

been to trace the Gariep to its mouth, and after examining the nature of the bar, to extend my excursion into Great Namaqualand, and perhaps, as far as the Damara country, which no European, except some of the Missionaries, had yet visited. But the difficulties I had already encountered from the extreme drought which now prevailed, the very disturbed and dangerous state of the country across the Gariep,*—and its general destitution of commercial resources,—induced me, after due consideration, to abandon this design, and to shape my course back towards the Colony, contenting myself with the information I had now collected respecting the other objects of my intended route.

About two P. M. therefore, I took leave of my kind host. Having passed the mountain which runs to the west of t'Kams, we entered upon an extensive plain, clothed with dry tufted grass, but destitute of water. A few insulated rocks and

* Since that time, the Wesleyan missionary Mr. Threlfall, in endeavouring to penetrate into the Damara country, has been murdered by some of the natives whom he had engaged as guides.

hills rose before us, and on our right, between us and the Gariep, I observed some flocks of ostriches and gemsboks. After riding about twelve miles across a dead flat, we passed through a defile, between two rugged hills, beyond which the dry grassy plains extended to the south and west, bounded only by the horizon. My guides were desirous of reaching some rocks this evening, in the crevices of which they expected to find water, in consequence of a late thunder-storm, which had passed in that direction. We continued our journey, therefore, long after night-fall, lighted only by the stars. My guides rode on before me with the silent apathy of the Hottentot race. Not a sound was heard, but a sort of melancholy music, produced by the feet of the horses perpetually brushing the long withered grass. Thus we proceeded till past ten o'clock, when, being still a long way from the intended spot, it was agreed to make a halt till daybreak. The night was very cold, and the only fuel we could procure was dry grass, which blazed for an instant, and was gone. To keep up a watch-fire through the night was impossible.

We stretched ourselves, therefore, on the cold sand, and committing myself, as usual, to the care of Providence, I was soon asleep. To sleep thus on the open plain, without fire, is very dangerous, on account of the lions; but we spent the night undisturbed.

22.—At daybreak we started from our lair, and shook the heavy dew from our shaggy mantles. The immense plain extended round us on every side, bounded only by the horizon, and covered by the same dry tufted herbage already described. I named this spot ‘Forlorn Station.’

Continuing our journey for three hours farther, we reached a place called *Goubus*, a singular mass of naked rocks, rising twenty or thirty feet above the level of the surrounding plains, and extending three or four hundred yards in length. Here, with difficulty, we procured water, by digging in some old pits, between the masses of rock, which form a sort of basin or trough, in which the rain-water is collected. It is from this circumstance that the spot derives its name,—*Goubus*, in the Bushman language, signifying “Trough Fountain.”

After having had some refreshment from my wallet, (which I had taken care to have replenished with sufficient provisions to carry us through the uninhabited desert,) we again proceeded. The same boundless waste extended around us, animated only now and then by a few wandering ostriches, till about two hours before sunset, when we saw the peaks of the Kamies mountain cut the horizon ahead of us, at the distance of fifty or sixty miles. An hour or two more brought us among some secondary hills which run on to the Kamiesberg; and among these hills we reached, in the course of the evening, a place called Riet-Fonteyn, occupied by a Griqua, or Bastard-Hottentot, named Dirk Boukes. A little before arriving here we passed a numerous flock of ostriches, amounting to nearly a hundred, with their fine plumes waving beautifully in the setting sun.

The occupant of this place seemed more like a substantial boor than a degraded Hottentot. He had large flocks and herds, and had cultivated a considerable quantity of land; and his establishment altogether was on a very respect-

able footing, excepting his dwelling, which was only a temporary hut, in the style of the Namaquas. The father of our host occupies another place in the Kamiesberg, and he has seven or eight brothers, all of whom likewise possess property. This Griqua family may, therefore, be considered as in circumstances much superior to the generality of their caste. It is a great hardship, in regard to this class of people, that they have hitherto been systematically prevented from acquiring landed property in the Colony. In consequence of this, they are generally driven entirely beyond the boundary, and tempted to become outlaws and robbers ; for if any of them occupy and improve a vacant spot within the limit, they are always liable to be dispossessed by some boor obtaining a grant of it from the Government, who thus reaps the fruit of all their improvements and industry.

At this place was also fixed a German Missionary, (employed by the London Society,) of the name of Wimmer, who had been engaged for many years as a preacher among the Namaquas. And here, also, was another wanderer,

a native of England, named Martin, who had long been an itinerant schoolmaster among the boors, and was now, at the age of seventy-two, filling the same office to the families of some of the Griquas. Forty-seven years ago, he told me, he had accompanied the traveller Patterson in his excursions through the Colony; but had now nearly forgot his native tongue. I spent an agreeable evening in conversing with these old men, and in listening to their accounts of the native tribes, and of the changes that had taken place among them within the period of their remembrance.

23.—After an early breakfast, I left these hospitable people. From Pella to this place, the country had been constantly, though imperceptibly, rising, so that we must, even before leaving the plains, have been some thousand feet above the level of the ocean. The soft sandy plains, clothed with a boundless sea of tufted grass, had given way to a clayey soil, dotted here and there with ant-hills,*—or to hard gra-

* The sandy soil of Namaqualand is not congenial to the little architectural ant which covers the plains of the Bush-

velly strata, covered with the brown, heathy-looking shrubs, so prevalent over great part of the Colony; and in an hour after leaving Riet-Fonteyn, we crossed the Koussie, or Buffalo's River, the present Colonial boundary. For about four hours farther, our route lay through the windings of the detached mountains, forming part of the Kamiesberg ridge. On our way we passed the locations of some Griquas in possession of large herds of cattle. About midway we

man Country, and many parts of the Colony, with millions of its conical heaps—sometimes rising to the height of four feet. There are, however, other species of ants in this country, and the great ant-eater is found throughout every part of South Africa. This animal (of which an engraving is prefixed to this chapter) is called by the Dutch colonists the *Aardvark*, or earth pig. It burrows under ground, making large holes, which are very numerous in many quarters of the country, and not a little perilous to travellers on horseback, as has already been repeatedly noticed in my narrative. The Aardvark is about four feet and a half in length, and occasionally is found to weigh upwards of 100lbs. It is destitute of teeth, and lives entirely upon ants, which it procures by making a breach in their clay-built fortresses, by means of its strong claws, and then thrusts in its long tongue, covered with glutinous matter, to catch the tiny myriads as they hurry forth from their thousand crevices. It is by night that the ant-eater thus follows his vocation. By day he lies quiet in his burrow, and is seldom or never seen.

halted for an hour in a picturesque defile, called Pieter's Kloof, where there was good water, and where we refreshed ourselves from the stores of our knapsack. The face of the country had here a very different aspect from the parched wastes I had lately traversed. Rain had fallen in abundance, and the declivities of the mountains were clothed with green forage of a bushy nature, excellent pasture for horses and cattle.

An hour or two beyond this spot, we fell in with a boor named Van Zyl, with a band of about thirty Griquas, repairing the road which leads across the Kamiesberg. They seemed much surprised at seeing an English traveller (who was *not* a Missionary) in this remote quarter. Several heavy showers of rain and sleet overtook us as we ascended the mountain,—a novel thing to me, and indicating a far different climate from that of the parched plains I had left. At sunset we gained the summit of the mountains, and the Hottentot station of Lily Fountain, established there by the Wesleyan Missionaries. Mr. Shaw, the missionary, being on a journey to Cape Town, I was hospitably received by two native teachers,

who had the superintendence of the institution in his absence. One of the Missionaries' houses was allotted to me, and a good fire and refreshments were prepared for my accommodation.

In the course of the evening, I was joined by the boor Van Zyl, who was exceedingly anxious to hear *who* I was, and *what* were my objects in travelling. He told me that many of the Bastard-Hottentots in the vicinity had absconded, under the apprehension that I was a military officer, come to press men for the Cape corps,—a service which most of them hold in great abhorrence, ever since that regiment was recruited, some years ago, by compulsory enrolment. Captain Blakeway had been here only a few months before, endeavouring to obtain men by voluntary enlistment, but without success; and they now imagined that I was another officer come to take them by force.

The settlement of Lily Fountain was commenced eight or ten years ago, by the Wesleyans. Three-fourths of the inhabitants were at present dispersed, with their flocks and herds, at various outposts of the mountain glens. When collected,

they amount to about 400 souls, consisting principally of Namaqua Hottentots, intermingled with several families of the mixed or Bastard race. The latter are generally the most wealthy and enterprising. Very large herds of cattle are possessed by many individuals. The two native superintendents who entertained me, mentioned that upwards of 4000 head belong to this little community. The place is also well adapted for breeding horses, being exempt from the periodical distemper to which that useful animal is subject throughout the greater part of the Colony. Indeed, generally speaking, the summits of mountains are the only secure places for horses during the autumnal months, when the sickness prevails.

The extent of land cultivated here is very considerable. About ninety muids of wheat (or somewhat more than 270 Winchester bushels) had been sown this season, covering from three to four hundred acres; and from which, if the season were tolerably favourable, a return of from thirty to fifty fold was anticipated. Were there any accessible market for their surplus produce, a much larger quantity might readily be raised;

for the frequency of snow and rain on this favoured mountain keeps the springs always running, and renders at the same time irrigation less indispensable. But as there are at present no means of disposing of any quantity of surplus grain in this quarter, the cultivation is necessarily confined to the immediate wants of the inhabitants.

The Kamiesberg is distant about forty miles from the west coast, and is considered to be from four to five thousand feet above the level of the sea. The Missionary establishment is within 300 feet of the highest peak of the mountain. The climate is consequently very different from that of the plains below. Falls of snow are frequent during the winter, and the frost is sometimes so severe as to injure the young crops. For this reason, as well as on account of the sour grass, it is not very favourable for rearing sheep; and some of the more delicate fruits of the Colony cannot be raised here. But its advantages are, nevertheless, great, and the salubrity of its climate proverbial. On the whole, it appeared to me a well-selected and well-conducted Mission-

ary station, highly creditable to its founders, and highly beneficial to the people under their control.

Having now visited nearly the whole of the Missionary stations in Southern Africa, it may not be improper to express in a few words the opinion I have formed regarding them. The usual objections against them are, that the generality of the Missionaries are a fanatical class of men, more earnest to inculcate the peculiar dogmas of their different sects, than to instruct the barbarous tribes in the arts of civilization; that most of them are vulgar and uninformed, —many of them injudicious, —some of them immoral;—and finally, that their exertions, whether to civilize or christianize the natives, have not hitherto been followed by any commensurate results.

Now my observations have led me to form a very different conclusion. It is no doubt true, that the Missionaries labouring among the tribes of the interior, are generally persons of limited education, most of them having originally been common mechanics: but it seems very doubtful

whether men of more refined and cultivated minds would be better adapted to meet the plain capacities of unintellectual barbarians; and were such teachers ever so preferable, where could they be procured? On the whole, the Missionaries I have been acquainted with in South Africa, appear to me generally well adapted for such service. Most of them are men of good, plain understanding, and industrious habits, zealously interested in the success of their labours, cordially attached to the natives, and willing to encounter, for their improvement, toil, danger, and privation. A few instances, in a long course of years, of indiscreet, or indolent, or immoral persons having been found among the Missionaries, proves nothing against the general respectability of their characters, or the utility of their exertions. Imperfection will be found wherever human agents are employed. But such unfavourable exceptions are rare; while, among them, many persons of superior ability, and even science, are to be found: and I may safely affirm, that at every Missionary station I have visited, instruction in the arts of civilized

life, and in the knowledge of pure and practical religion, go hand in hand.

It is true, that among the wilder tribes of Bushmen, Korannas, and Bechuanas, the progress of the missions has hitherto been exceedingly slow and circumscribed. But persons who have visited these tribes, and are best qualified to appreciate the difficulties to be surmounted in instructing and civilizing them, will, if they are not led away by prejudice, be far more disposed to admire the exemplary fortitude, patience, and perseverance of the Missionaries, than to speak of them with contempt and contumely. These devoted men are found in the remotest deserts, accompanying the wild and wandering savages from place to place, destitute of almost every comfort, and at times without even the necessities of life. Some of them have, without murmuring, spent their whole lives in such service. Let those who consider missions as idle, or unavailing, visit Gnadenthal, Bethelsdorp, Theopolis, the Caffer stations, Griqua Town, Kamiesberg, &c. &c. &c.—let them view what *has* been effected at these institutions for tribes of the na-

tives, oppressed, neglected, or despised by every other class of men of Christian name: and if they do not find all accomplished which the world had, perhaps, too sanguinely anticipated, let them fairly weigh the obstacles that have been encountered, before they venture to pronounce an unfavourable decision. For my own part, utterly unconnected as I am with Missionaries, or Missionary societies of any description, I cannot, in candour and justice, withhold from them my humble meed of applause for their labours in Southern Africa. They have, without question, been in this country not only the devoted teachers of our holy religion to the heathen tribes, but also the indefatigable pioneers of discovery and civilization. Nor is their character unappreciated by the natives. Averse as they still are, in many places, to receive a religion, the doctrines of which are too pure and benevolent to be congenial to hearts depraved by selfish and vindictive passions, they are yet every where friendly to the missionaries, eagerly invite them to reside in their territories, and consult them in all their emergencies. Such is the impression

which the disinterestedness, patience, and kindness of the Missionaries, have, after long years of labour and difficulty, decidedly made even upon the wildest and fiercest of the South African tribes with whom they have come in contact; and this favourable *impression*, where more has not yet been achieved, is of itself a most important step towards full and ultimate success.

CHAPTER IX.

Journey from Kamiesberg to Clan-William.—Deserted Location of the Irish Settlers.—Industrious Hottentot Farmer.—St. Helena Bay.—Extraordinary Phenomenon.—Saldanha Bay.—Groote-Post.—Groene-Kloof.—Arrival in Cape Town.

AUGUST 24.—ON looking out this morning at sunrise, I was surprised to find the ground white with snow, and the thermometer at the freezing point. In little more than an hour, however, the snow entirely disappeared; and I found an opportunity to take the annexed sketch of the Missionary village.* After breakfast, I again started with fresh horses, having dismissed the horses and guides I had brought from Namaqualand.

* The huts are of the moveable sort used by the Namaquas; and most of the inhabitants being absent when I was there, had carried their huts with them, so that the village was reduced to a small hamlet.



G. Thompson Esq. del.

KAMIESBERG.

London, Pub.^d by H. Colburn, Jan^r 1827.

From the brow of the mountain, a most extensive prospect lay before me; but wild and desolate, and unenlivened by the dwellings of man, or the marks of human improvement. Far in the west the wide Atlantic embraced the coast, and bounded the horizon. We descended from the mountain by an abrupt and broken footpath, and after passing some locations of Griqua farmers, we continued our way through an intricate maze of winding kloofs, till we reached the place of the Veld-Cornet Engelbregt, after a continual descent of about thirty miles. This was the first boor's place I had seen on my return into the Colony. The master was living in a rude Namaqua hut, though apparently a person of considerable substance. Such are the slovenly habits which a wandering pastoral life creates, and perpetuates. The abundant rains, which had recently fallen in this quarter, had produced every where an exuberant freshness over the face of Nature, exceedingly delightful to my eye, after roaming so long through the parched deserts of the Bushman and Namaqua countries. Pleasant rills, too, were now pouring from every mountain glen. But these

refreshing streams do not extend permanently beyond the skirts of the Kamiesberg. A great deficiency of water prevails from the place where we now were, to the banks of the Oliphant's River, a distance of nearly one hundred miles. This tract of country is, consequently, to a great extent, only capable of being occupied occasionally, and after heavy rains; a circumstance which greatly tends to confirm the slovenly and roaming habits of the neighbouring colonists. Desolate and inhospitable as is this tract of country, it was nevertheless sufficiently tempting to the Christians, to occasion the dispossession, and ultimate extinction of a Hottentot tribe, called the Amaquas, who formerly occupied it.

The boor Engelbregt accompanied me to the residence of his next neighbour Coetzee, called Buffel's-Fonteyn, about twenty miles distant. I found this man also living in a Namaqua hut, without either garden or corn-field, but with extensive kraals full of sheep and cattle, which were encircled by numerous fires, to scare off the wolves and wild dogs.

25.—Daylight showed this boor's encampment

to be most picturesquely situated, amidst prodigious blocks of naked granite, each of them like a little mountain of one entire mass. The Paarl Rock, from which the village of that name derives its appellation, is far from equalling some of these in size, though by some travellers supposed to be one of the largest detached rocks in the world.

Having engaged a guide and three good horses, as far as Oliphant's River, I pursued my journey through a solitary and desolate country, almost void of inhabitants, with no living thing to relieve the monotony of the scenery, except the korhaan,* rising every now and then before our horses, and screaming forth its hoarse, discordant cry. In the evening I reached Eland's-Fonteyn, (De Toit's,) after a journey of fully sixty miles. This was a "Request place," occupied only in the winter, and the farmer and his family were living in Namaqua huts.

26.—Resumed my journey before daybreak. At sunrise I was cheered by the morning carols of numerous birds among the bushes, and the appearance and sweet perfume of a great variety of

* A species of bustard.

brilliant flowers and heaths, called forth by the late rains. We crossed on our way the dry bed of the Hantam River, near the spot where it joins the Oliphant's River, and in an hour afterwards, reached Friedensdal, the place of the Veld-Cornet Van Zyl, upon the banks of the latter stream.

I was here informed that the Oliphant's River overflows its banks in certain places generally before seed-time, and that the land so overflowed, being immediately ploughed and sown, while saturated with moisture, produces very abundant crops without further irrigation. I conceive it possible that the banks of the Gariep might be cultivated successfully in some places on the same principle.

27.—This evening I arrived at the drostdy of Clan William, after a tedious journey, without any occurrence worthy of remark, through a country already sufficiently known from the descriptions of Barrow and Lichtenstein.

28.—Clan William is a division of the *ci-devant* district of Tulbagh, now Worcester. The drostdy is situated on a stream formerly called Jan-Distel's River. Besides the Deputy Landdrost's house, and offices, the village consists of only about half-

a-dozen houses. The present magistrate is a Captain Synnot, one of the Irish party of settlers who were originally located in this vicinity.

Accompanied by my hospitable friend Mr. Bergh, who resides at this place, I rode out this morning to see the location of the Irish settlers. It was about half-an-hour's ride from the village, and occupied a little dale called Kleine-Vallei. We passed through the entire location, and found only one settler of the name of Shaw remaining, out of the whole original party of 350 souls; the rest have been partly removed to Albany, and partly scattered in various other parts of the Colony. It is indeed a most extraordinary circumstance, that such a number of people should have been set down in this place, which is barely sufficient for the competent subsistence of two boor's families. There did not appear to me to be above forty acres of land fit for cultivation in the whole place. The foundation of a house begun by the eccentric and speculative Mr. Parker, the original head of the Irish emigrants, was a melancholy memorial of the entire failure and dispersion of this party.

Having heard of an industrious Hottentot, who possessed a small location in this vicinity, I prevailed on Mr. Bergh to accompany me thither. We reached it after an arduous ascent into the Cedar mountains, in a nook of which it is situate. The proprietor (Abraham Zwarts) showed us his whole premises with pride and pleasure. His farm consists of about fifty-four acres, three of which are sown with wheat. Besides this he raises annually about 100lb. of tobacco, and has upwards of 200 fruit trees in bearing, the produce of which he dries and sells at the drostdy. His live-stock amounted to sixteen head of cattle, twenty goats, and forty sheep. His family consisted of a little colony of more than twenty-four children; and grandchildren,—all of whom, so far as their years admit, assist in the cultivation of the little farm, and are supported and clothed by its produce.

This is, perhaps, the only instance of a Hottentot having obtained a grant of land in the Colony; and the circumstances are curious and worthy of being commemorated, to evince what might be anticipated from Hottentot industry, if that

long oppressed race received due encouragement to exert themselves. Zwarts had been permitted by the deputy landdrost Bergh, to occupy this wild place, which no boor then considered worth the asking for, and had made considerable improvement upon it, when, upon the arrival of the settlers, he was warned to evacuate it, in order that it might be added to their location; and he would have been then unceremoniously dispossessed, except for the laudable humanity of Mr. Parker and Captain Synnot, who represented the hardship of the case to the Colonial Government, and obtained for the poor man a full grant of the place, on perpetual quit-rent. The respectable appearance of Zwarts and his family, and the evidences of their industry every where apparent, prove how well the favour of Government has been in this instance bestowed, and leads us to regret the more, that it should be a singular and solitary instance of such favour shown to the Aborigines of the country. How can industry or improvement be expected from a class of people long degraded into bondsmen, and systematically prevented from emerging from that condition?

I spent the forenoon at the drostdy. Its situation is very warm, under the skirts of the Cedarberg. Oranges and many other fruits are raised here in great perfection, but the general capabilities of the place, and the resources of the neighbouring country, are but limited. The Oliphant's River, which is the principal one in the district, is not capable, on account of the bar at its mouth, of being entered, even by small craft; and Lambert's Bay, the nearest place to the drostdy where goods can be landed, is very open, and exposed to the north-west gales. Should it ever become, however, the seat of government for an independent district, this village may in time probably acquire some population, and become, like similar places, a mart of mechanical labour and provincial traffic. It is distant about 200 miles from Cape Town.

30.—The country between Clan William and Cape Town is so well known from the descriptions of former travellers, that I shall not detain the reader by any observations upon it, nor with the trifling incidents of a journey over beaten ground. In order to visit the Bays of St. Helena

and Saldanha, I made a considerable deviation from the direct route, and reached the former in the course of the 30th. I found here Lieutenant Pedder, of the navy, who conducts a whale fishery for some merchants in Cape Town. His success had this season been very indifferent. Seven fish only had been killed, which would not defray the expenses of the establishment. It is the black whale which frequents this coast, producing each, from ten to fifteen leagers (a measure of 152 gallons) of oil. The whales are all females, who seek the unfrequented bays to calve, and since the fishery has been actively prosecuted at the Cape, they have been gradually deserting its shores. Mr. Pedder mentioned to me a singular circumstance which had occurred in this bay a few months before. A prodigious shoal of sharks and other fish ran on shore and died on the beach, which they covered for an extent of about four miles. Mr. Pedder obtained eighteen leagers of sharks' oil, and, had he had hands sufficient, might have had fifty times as much. A similar occurrence took place in Table Bay many years ago, and on both occasions the sea had previously ap-

peared from the beach of a blood red colour. Whether this phenomenon, and the consequent rushing of the fish upon the beach, might be occasioned by the existence of any poisonous matter in the sea, I leave to naturalists to determine.

St. Helena Bay is well sheltered from the south and west, but exposed to the north. It has good anchorage, and a small creek on its southern side may, I conceive, be safely resorted to as a harbour for small coasting vessels; but the unproductive nature of the adjoining country (except for grazing) renders this bay of far less importance than it would be on the south-eastern coast of the Colony. The Berg River, which falls into it, though a considerable stream, admits only boats over the bar.

31.—At an early hour this morning, I reached Saldanha Bay, and coasted it from the northern to the southern extremity, where the government has a small establishment. Any particular description of this bay, after what has been written upon the subject by such a competent judge as Mr. Barrow, would be more than superfluous. Saldanha Bay is known to be far the best, or

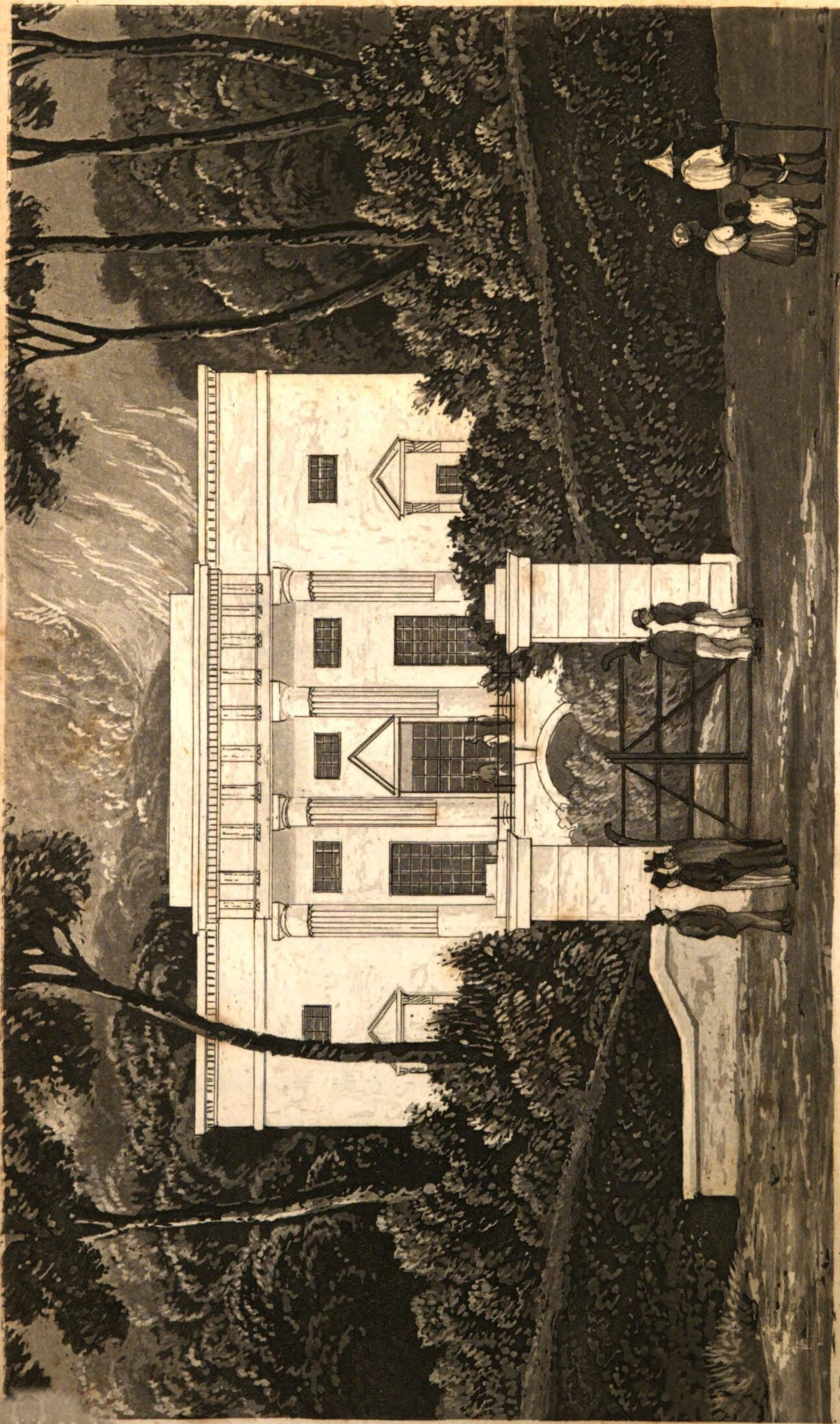
rather the only good *harbour* in South Africa. It is, in fact, one of the safest and most capacious havens in the world. Had nature placed it where Table Bay is, or poured the Berg River into it, in place of St. Helena Bay, it would have enhanced beyond calculation the value of the whole Colony. As it now is, with scarcely fresh water on its shores sufficient for a single family, its other advantages are completely neutralized. All projects for obtaining water, either by boring, or by digging a canal from the Berg River, have hitherto been considered impracticable. Whether these obstacles may not yet be surmounted by some achievement of modern science, remains to be proved. Want of water is the great defect of the whole of this part of the coast, and will for ever doom it to a scanty and scattered population.

In the afternoon I arrived at Groote-Post, a farm established by Government, for the encouragement of agriculture, and where much attention has been paid, and, as I understand, with considerable success, to the improvement of the breed of live stock in the Colony. There is a

pretty comfortable house on this farm, which the Governor usually occupies as a hunting-lodge in the sporting season.

I spent the night at Klaiver-Vallei, the residence of Mr. Duckett, an enterprising agriculturist, where I found every thing in the arrangement of his large establishment so much in the style of a substantial English farmer, that, except for the predominance of black servants, I could almost have conceived myself among the scenes of my childhood. Mr. Duckett had, however, found it expedient to adapt the system of English farming to the circumstances of the country and climate, by various modifications suggested by the experience of the elder colonists.

SEPT. 1.—Called at the Moravian Institution of Groene-Kloof, and examined the establishment, with which I was, on the whole, much gratified; though its external appearance is by no means so pleasing as that of Gnadenthal; nor is there, seemingly, that degree of enterprize and excitement among the Hottentots, which have recently been developed among their countrymen at most of the missionary establishments in the eastern



G. Thompson. Esq. del.

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VIEW OF THE MANSION OF DUKE VAN REENEN ESQ.

districts of the Colony. Groene-Kloof is, nevertheless, a very praiseworthy establishment, and has proved, by the amelioration it has gradually introduced in both the character and circumstances of the natives under its superintendence, a great blessing to that part of the Colony.

At mid-day I reached Mr. Van Reenen's, at Brak-Fonteyn, where finding two gentlemen of my acquaintance on a visit from Cape Town, I accepted with pleasure a seat in their carriage, and arrived in the evening at my own house, after a brief but arduous excursion of about five weeks.

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CHAPTER I.

PART III.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE PRESENT CONDITION OF
THE DUTCH AND ENGLISH INHABITANTS; ON
THE ADAPTATION OF THE COUNTRY FOR FAR-
THER COLONIZATION; AND ON ITS AGRICUL-
TURAL AND COMMERCIAL CAPABILITIES.

PART III.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE PRESENT CONDITION OF
THE DUTCH AND ENGLISH SETTLEMENTS; ON
THE ADAPTATION OF THE COUNTRY TO THE
THEIR COLONIZATION; AND ON THE AGRICULTURE
AND COMMERCE OF THE COUNTRY.

CHAPTER I.

Estimate of the Dutch-African Character.—Vendue Meeting.—Wedding Party.—Apathy and Avarice.—The several Classes of Farmers.—Dutch Law of Succession.—Extension of the Colonial Boundaries.—Contrast between the poor and affluent Graziers.

THIRTY years ago, Mr. Barrow drew a powerful, but somewhat overcharged picture of the Cape-Dutch boors. The facts that he adduced were, no doubt, correct,—the features that he portrayed were real;—but the delineation was, nevertheless, an unfair representation of the colonists, because the traveller had only seen them under an unfavourable aspect. Their character has many redeeming points, which a writer in Mr. Barrow's circumstances could have no opportunity of observing; while, on the other hand, the unhappy situation of affairs, and the feelings

of mutual hostility between the victors and the vanquished, rendered at that time every unfavourable quality of the latter more prominent and provoking.

These circumstances, together with the generous indignation inspired by the cruel oppressions inflicted upon the Hottentots and Bushmen, in behalf of whom Mr. Barrow has so powerfully pleaded, are sufficient, in my opinion, to account for his too great severity towards the Dutch colonists, without ascribing to that distinguished writer any intentional injustice.

Dr. Lichtenstein, on the other hand, appears to have been led by political opposition, and other causes, to contradict Mr. Barrow's account, on many occasions, without just cause; and to represent the farmers as a much more polished and praiseworthy race of men than they could at that time, or even now, be fairly alleged to be.

The truth seems to lie between these conflicting accounts. The Cape-Dutch colonists, judging from my own observation, which has been pretty extensive, are neither generally so brutal as they appear in the pages of Barrow, nor so

refined as represented by Lichtenstein. In fact, these intelligent writers seem rather to have taken the two extremes, than the average character. That the back-country boors of former times were many of them as savage, indolent, and unprincipled as Mr. Barrow has described, cannot be questioned; and the facts I have stated, and those I shall yet state, will prove that to this day *some* of them are in no respect improved. But even the *Vee-Boors* in general have many good and pleasing qualities, and their worst are, in my apprehension, clearly to be ascribed to the many disadvantageous circumstances under which they are placed: to their being thinly scattered over an immense territory, out of the reach of religious instruction, or moral restraint; to the vicious and corrupt character of the old Dutch government, by which the interests of the community were constantly sacrificed for those of the company and its servants; to the inefficient police, which not only allowed but encouraged and abetted a system of unrighteous aggression against the native tribes; and last, not least, to the influence of slavery, which, wherever it

prevails, inevitably deteriorates and pollutes the whole mass of society. Yet, with all these disadvantages, the very rudest class of the Cape boors seem to be in many respects superior to the half-savage back settlers, in almost every quarter of the Spanish or Anglo-American colonies. I shall now illustrate these remarks by facts of recent date, in which I shall "nothing extenuate, nor set down aught in malice."

On my visit to Struys Bay, near Cape Agulhas, in 1822, I had occasion to pass a night at a boor's house, where a party of farmers, some of them from a considerable distance, had come to attend the sale of the wreck of the *Grace*. A public sale of any importance usually collects a number of the inhabitants together, as much with the view of meeting company, as of making a bargain; for in the country districts it is only on such occasions that they have an opportunity of meeting in parties, and of indulging those social propensities which are common to all men, rustic or refined. On the present occasion the festivity was indeed rustic and even barbarous to a degree I never witnessed among the colonists in the re-

moter districts. An ox was killed, and the carcase, mangled in a most disgusting manner, was cut up, and part, yet warm from the blood, thrown into a pot and boiled to rags : this was heaped upon the table in huge pewter plates ; and at the same time about one hundred pounds of boiled rice was served up to the company, who consisted of about thirty men, with their wives and daughters. The men seated themselves round the table, and with their hunting-knives fell voraciously upon the victuals, each helping himself as he could, without either offering a seat to the females, or inviting them to partake, till their own hunger was satiated. After dinner the boors drank raw brandy until they were half tipsy, and then commenced dancing, which they carried on amidst loud talking, vulgar jesting, and obstreperous laughter, the whole night long.

Such scenes are, I believe, not unfrequent among the ruder class of boors ; but they do not usually lead to scenes of any great disorder, nor are they, perhaps, more discreditable or immoral than the vulgar festivity of the peasantry in Holland or Germany. Habitual drunkenness is

not a vice so prevalent among the African farmers, as it was even among English gentlemen less than 100 years ago; and although the birthday festivals, even of the richest and most polished class of the Cape-Dutch gentry, are still but too frequently disgraced by hard drinking and riotous mirth,—and the *pokaalie* cup, like the “blessed bear of Bradwardine,” too often drowns both reason and refinement; yet we, who have ourselves been so recently reclaimed from the remains of the old German taste for gross debauchery, have little right to view these remote colonists, on that account, as brutal barbarians. To evince, however, that I have no intention of cloaking their faults, or concealing their worst excesses, but rather, by their exposure, to shame them out of them, I shall mention another scene of riotous merriment which I myself witnessed.

On my return from the Congo, in 1822, I arrived at the house of a rich corn and wine boor, not 100 miles from Cape Town, who had been recently married, and who, in honour of the happy occasion, had that day given a grand ball and entertainment to a numerous party of

his friends and neighbours. It was evening when I reached the house; and being known to the host, and travelling in company, indeed, with one of his neighbours, I was most hospitably welcomed. The dancing, which had commenced before our arrival, was continued till past midnight, and the female part of the company conducted themselves with great propriety and decorum; but the gentlemen had evidently been indulging far too freely in the bottle, and were much more noisy and riotous, than pleasant or entertaining. About one o'clock in the morning the company sat down to a splendid and luxurious supper; after which the wine again circulated profusely among the male guests, and those who were disposed to sobriety were absolutely compelled to drink by the more boisterous of the party, who also began to play off rude practical jokes, such as exploding squibs and crackers among the dancers, &c. Wearied out by a long ride the preceding day, and with a surfeit of this rough horse-play, I stole off, with one or two of my fellow-travellers, about five o'clock in the morning, and took refuge in an outhouse, in hopes

of there getting a little repose before we continued our journey. But we reckoned “without our host;” for, as soon as our absence was discovered, a numerous party of the Bacchanals sallied forth in search of us, and dragged us by main force back to the hall. A second time we made our escape—but in vain. Our resistance only provoked these riotous fellows to more mischievous persecution. They got hold of an old cannon which happened to be about the place, loaded it with powder, and stuffed it to the muzzle with wet straw, and then fired it into the room where we were just sinking into sleep,—breaking with the concussion all the windows to shivers, and very nearly shaking down the roof about our ears. Finding it useless to contend with madmen, we returned to the party, who continued their *vrolykheid* (as they call it) without intermission till morning, when we were allowed to depart, glad to escape from such boisterous hospitality.

In both these instances, little as I was disposed to admire the taste of African joviality, I could not but allow, that, with all its riotous extrava-

gance, there was less disposition to brawling or quarrelling, than would probably have been witnessed among our own countrymen in similar circumstances,—and that good breeding, far more than right feeling, was wanting.

The fact is, travellers, for the most part, are too apt to generalize hastily, and to give their readers erroneous impressions, by selecting a few striking scenes or characters as illustrations of the general state of manners and morals among the people whom they visit ; and the picture is favourable or otherwise, according to the temper, talents, taste, or extent of observation of the traveller. I might easily have been led myself, by the scenes I have just described, or by a few instances of unprincipled or unfeeling conduct, to form a much less favourable estimate than I have done of the Dutch colonists, had my experience been confined to one or two brief excursions among them. But after having visited every district of the Colony, and mingled familiarly with all classes of the population, and with the rudest and remotest of the back settlers, I do not hesitate to characterize them generally as a shrewd,

prudent, persevering, good-humoured, hospitable, and respectable class of men. That there are among them individuals undeserving of all or any of these epithets, is no more discreditable to them as a body, than the existence of a few swindlers and ruffians among English farmers, to the body of our respectable yeomanry. The African boors have, indeed, some general defects, from which our yeomanry are free; but these, as I have already observed, may justly be ascribed to the political and moral disadvantages under which they labour.

It is somewhat remarkable, that the poorer class of corn boors near Cape Agulhas, and other parts of the Caledon district, are many of them more rude in their manners, and more knavish and immoral in their general character, than even the wandering graziers of the northern frontier. The following incident will exemplify this, and at the same time serve to show how unjust it may often be for travellers to act upon the maxim "From one judge of the rest."

Mr. P., a friend of mine, travelling into the interior, was riding past a farm-house, near the

Zonderend River, when he was furiously assaulted by about a score of dogs belonging to the place, in consequence of which he was thrown from his horse, and had his thigh-bone broken. The boor, a young man of the name of Vanderwalt, came to the door, and seeing the accident, stood gazing at a distance, without offering to assist the gentleman who was lying on the ground, until he was called forward, and requested by him to help him into the house. Mr. P. then asked him to send off a messenger instantly for the district surgeon at the village of Caledon, about three hours distant. Vanderwalt replied that he had no one who could be spared, except a slave, who was at work in the field, and whom, with some hesitation, he agreed to send for. After waiting, however, about an hour, no slave appeared; the young fellow sitting all the while, quietly smoking his pipe, beside the agonized traveller. At length the latter demanded whether he meant to send any one or not, or, if his slave was not at hand, why he did not ride off for the doctor himself? To this the farmer, taking the pipe from his mouth, replied with great *sang-froid*, "Jaa,

Mynheer, ik kan zelve ryden—als Mynheer zal my daarom ordentelyk betalen.” “ Yes, Sir, I can ride myself, if you will pay me handsomely.” Finding himself at the fellow’s mercy, Mr. P. suppressed his indignation at his unfeeling avarice, paid him what he demanded, (about four times the hire of a man and horse for the distance,) and Vanderwalt rode off for the doctor.

“ Now,” said the gentleman to whom this incident occurred, “ had I been a traveller passing hastily through the country, I should most probably have taken this as a fair average specimen of the colonial character; but having previously travelled through a great part of the interior, and been in habits of almost daily intercourse with the inhabitants, I am bound in candour to say, that I do not believe there are a dozen individuals in the Colony, who, in similar circumstances, would have acted like this fellow Vanderwalt, or who would not regard with scorn and indignation any person so acting.”

My own experience certainly does not contradict this favourable testimony. I am satisfied that there is a great deal of hearty kindness, and

substantial worth, in the character of the Cape-Dutch colonists. Notwithstanding the evil influence of slavery, and of their rancorous hostilities with the Bushmen and Caffers, they are not *generally* a depraved or inhuman race of men. Neither are they so indolent as they have generally been represented. Many of the farms that have been for any length of time occupied upon a secure tenure, exhibit proofs of a prudent, persevering industry, not unworthy of their Batavian progenitors. In the interior districts, where less agricultural enterprise is visible, it is to be considered that the great, I might say, the only source of profit, hitherto, has been the breeding of sheep and cattle, which necessarily induces habits somewhat unsettled and averse to steady labour; and, besides this, on the Caffer frontier, the colonists have been so frequently driven from their dwellings, that it is only since the Keiskamma became the boundary, that they have really begun to consider themselves as secure and permanent occupants of their farms. But wherever they have been settled for any considerable time, in favourable situations, their industry is, generally speak-

ing, not less apparent than in the Sneeuwberg,—which pleased Mr. Barrow so much, that he was led to regard the inhabitants of that district as a class of colonists superior to the rest of their countrymen.

Having said this much upon the character of the Dutch colonists, I shall add a few observations on their present circumstances, which have undergone, within the last twenty years, an alteration, I apprehend, much more remarkable than their manners.

Twenty years ago the vine-growers were considered the most thriving class of agriculturists; next to them the corn farmers; and the graziers were placed lowest in the scale. Various causes have, within these few years, combined to modify, if not to reverse this gradation.

The abolition of the Slave Trade, which enhanced so greatly the price of slave labour, by which the vine is exclusively cultivated; the depreciation of the colonial currency, which fell most severely upon the old capitalists; the increase of taxes, both general and provincial; the fluctuation of the demand for Cape wines in the Eu-

ropean market; and the unsteady measures (I regret to add) of the Home Government in that point,—which, after holding out such encouragement for the production of Cape wines, as led to a large investment of capital in increasing the cultivation, has ultimately left it to compete with foreign wines in the English market, under great disadvantages ;—these, and various other circumstances, have contributed to weigh heavily on the wine farmers, and greatly to impair their general prosperity.

Of these various disadvantages, one of the most severe, though, perhaps, not the most obvious, is the necessity of employing slave labour. Now, although a particular slave, from some superior qualifications, may be productive to his owner, (and it is impossible, so long as free servants are scarce, and consequently little under the control of their employers, to carry on any agricultural establishment to advantage, without vesting a capital in that description of labour,) yet it is an unquestionable fact, that the colonists are suffering more or less, in proportion as they are possessed of slaves ; or, in other words, are receiving a

smaller return from their capital, than if it were otherwise invested : and there are few slave-owners, beyond the lines which surround Cape Town, who, after estimating the cost of their agricultural property, can say that they receive an adequate return from their capital. On the other hand, Hottentot labour is, generally speaking, hired at a rate much below its comparative value; a consequence of the very injurious restrictions which that race have to contend with. This circumstance, along with the higher rate of profit derived from the breeding of stock, accounts for the superior success of the graziers, in spite of a limited market, the impolitic restrictions on the internal commerce of the Colony, and the monopolizing regulations of the Burgher Senate.

The vine-growers have (either belonging to themselves, or upon loan,) large capitals invested in slaves, buildings, vineyards, fustage, draught-cattle, and pasture lands; and are consequently enabled to live at a rate, which might be considered by a stranger, who does not perceive their minute economy, to be extravagant. But if a very few, who have peculiar advantages, or make

a superior description of wine, are excepted, they do not receive the average rate of profit on their capital, nor anything like it. Their early habits, and the impossibility of finding purchasers for their estates, are the principal causes of their perseverance at the present low prices of their produce. They can, by means of a very large capital, pay their taxes and live, but that is all. If they do not encroach on their capital, it is only owing to an economy, and an attention to petty gains, which no English family, with half their means, would pretend for a moment to cope with them in.

The profits of the corn farmers, within a moderate distance of the Cape market, where they have not been affected by the late years of blight, are probably somewhat higher; but the difference cannot be very great, as there is nothing of moment, except the transfer duty, (which, to be sure, is a serious obstacle of itself,) to prevent the flux and reflux of capital between these two employments.

The stock farmers, or graziers, on the frontier, having acquired few wants, and consequently being less exposed to indirect taxation, and having

almost an unlimited range of pasturage, are accumulating capital rapidly.

The inhabitants of the middle districts, prevented by the distance from the Cape market, by old habits, and by the prohibition of direct exportation from the ports nearest to them, from turning their attention to the production of grain, depend either on the sale of the produce of their cattle, or on their labour, and that of their slaves and Hottentots, in cutting wood, tapping aloes, &c. for sale at Cape Town,—or on supplying the stock farmers with waggon, wines, spirits, fruits, and imported articles; and many of them, therefore, may be more properly designated as carriers than farmers.

There are other two circumstances that have hitherto tended greatly to prevent the accumulation of capital, and to retard the general prosperity of the Colony. These are, first the Dutch law of succession, by which all the children are entitled to an equal share of the family property; and, secondly, the progressive extension of the colonial boundaries.

The first of these causes operates in the fol-

lowing manner. Suppose a farmer leaves, at his decease, an estate well-stocked, and in a course of improvement, under judicious management, with a sufficient capital. We will suppose that he has also realized two or three thousand rix-dollars of surplus cash, which is placed in the bank, or lent out at interest,—a supposition, however, too favourable to happen in the generality of cases. If he leaves only one or two children, who are out of their minority, the property is easily divided, and the estate may remain in the possession of one of them without any great incumbrance, or injurious retrenchment. But if, as is very frequently the case, there is a large family of children, and several of them still minors, the whole property must be exposed to public sale, in order that it may be realized in money to effect its division into, perhaps, eight or ten equal shares. By these means the family farm either falls into new hands, or if purchased back by one of the heirs, it is now reoccupied, either with funds inadequate to its full cultivation, or upon capital borrowed at the rate of six, or perhaps eight, per cent. interest; which presses as a

dead weight upon the new possessor, probably, for half his lifetime. The rest of the sons either purchase farms upon credit, and enter upon them in the same embarrassed state; or, if they cannot effect this, they migrate to the frontier districts, and become graziers.

The effect of this system is, that in the great majority of cases, whatever capital a man may acquire during his lifetime, is again entirely dispersed at his death. The means of improvement, and the progress of society, are thus continually kept in check. There is little or no gradation of ranks among the white population. Every man is a burgher by rank, and a farmer by occupation; and there is none so poor that he would not consider himself degraded by becoming the dependent of another. If a boor has a dozen sons, (no uncommon case in the Colony,) they must all be farmers. Instead of their youth being occupied in learning some useful trade or profession, they hang about their father's house, often half idle, until the family patrimony be divided, and then they disperse to establish themselves as they severally can. The few that do learn mecha-

nical or other trades, generally abandon them as soon as they have acquired the means of stocking a farm.

The English law of primogeniture would not, however, form an effectual remedy for the evil effects of this system, so long as the boundaries of the Colony are not definitively fixed. So long as this is the case, the population will continue to extend itself, as it does at present, much beyond its real means of profitable occupation; for the wandering, half-savage life of a back-country boor, will always have charms for the idle and adventurous, much beyond those of the more comfortable, but more laborious mechanic. I cannot help considering, therefore, that the policy of the Colonial Government, in extending continually the limits of the Colony, and allowing the population to expand itself unprofitably, has been equally erroneous and unfortunate.

Let us follow a little farther the career of one of these young colonists, who has learned no trade but farming, and whose portion is insufficient either to purchase or stock a farm in any of the older districts. His usual course, we have ob-

served, is to migrate to the frontier. A very limited capital will enable a man to begin the world as a *vee boor*. He purchases, say

An old waggon for about - - 350 rix-dollars.

A spann of ten oxen - - 150

A horse and two mares - - 200

Fifty cows and young cattle - 500

Five hundred sheep and goats - 1000

Rix-dollars 2200 (165*l.*)

The above, with a large gun, an axe, adze, and hammer, a couple of waggon-chests, a churn, a large iron pot for boiling soap, and one or two smaller ones for cooking, are all that is absolutely requisite to establish a stock farmer in South Africa.

With this property, he marries a wife, hires a family of Hottentots, and drives forth into the wilderness. Water and pasturage are his first objects. He encamps near some unoccupied fountain, pool, or river, changing his station according as necessity or inclination may require, until he at length finds some eligible spot, where he thinks

he can advantageously fix himself. This spot is probably beyond the nominal boundary of the Colony, and belongs of right to the Bushman. No matter for that ; the boundary can be extended, —and as for the rights of savage Bushmen, he considers that a mere jest ; for Bushmen neither plant, nor sow, nor breed cattle ; and now that the guns of the colonists have destroyed, or frightened away the game, and the natives are often distressed for food, their best course, in his opinion, is to become quiet servants to the white men, like their Hottentot brethren.

Reasoning thus, he takes possession of a river side, or some permanent *vley*, or fountain ; or agrees with some other adventurer, like himself, to live together for the sake of greater security, and to divide, like Lot and Abraham, the country between them. He makes interest with the local magistrate, in the meanwhile, to be allowed to occupy the tract he has fixed upon, and this being complied with, he sends in a memorial to the governor, soliciting the permanent grant of it. His application is remitted to the landdrost to be reported upon ; and if the report is favourable,

the land is surveyed, and granted to him and his heirs upon perpetual quit rent. Thus he is established; and if no disaster occurs, and he is not very idle or drunken, the progressive increase of his stock, beyond the consumption of his family and servants, will probably render him, eventually, a *vee-boor* of respectable property. I have met with many boors who had begun the world in this way, in the possession of numerous herds and flocks. The soap and butter, made by the females, is sent to market once or twice a year at the drostdy; and two or three hundred rix-dollars, made in this way, suffices to purchase clothes for the family, and to pay the taxes. Corn is seldom raised, or bread eaten, by them; but brandy (the only luxury besides tobacco in which the poorer boors indulge) is purchased from *smouses*, or hawkers, who traverse the remotest skirts of the Colony with waggon-loads of this detestable beverage.

It may be said that the white population increases more rapidly, by thus spreading itself extensively over the country, than if confined within narrower limits. This is no doubt true; but the

population is far less valuable,—less orderly, intelligent, and industrious, than it would be, if the enterprize of the poorer classes were otherwise directed. If the limits of the Colony had not been so injudiciously enlarged, the population, in the older districts, would have, ere now, assumed a much more compact and effective shape. It would have devolved into various classes and gradations, all supporting each other, and accelerating the general prosperity. A greater division of labour would have taken place, to the vast benefit of the community,—in place of one man being at once farmer, waggon-maker, blacksmith, carpenter, and so forth, as is still, to a great extent, the case; competition would have sharpened industry; the spendthrift and the idle would have sunk to indigence, but indigence would have forced them to labour, and thus to become useful members of society; the larger farms, near the coast, would have been broken down, and cultivated to more advantage; the country towns would have become more populous and thriving, and other villages would have been built; education would have been more easily attainable, and religious

instruction and general knowledge far more effectually disseminated ; free labour would have been found cheaper and more efficient than that of slaves, and would have led to the gradual disuse and final annihilation of that fertile source of misery and crime.

Such, in my apprehension, are a few of the advantages that have been unfortunately lost to the present generation, by permitting the colonial population to disperse itself, as fast as it increased, into the wilderness ; and for which, the partial advantages resulting to the migrating class, but very slightly compensate. I say nothing, at present, of the oppression and injury inflicted by this system upon the native tribes. Many facts and observations in the preceding part of the work, render this point sufficiently obvious.

Even among the graziers, however, though recently far the most prosperous class of the community, great wealth is seldom acquired, without the aid of commensurate capital to begin with ; while such adventurers, as I have described, are struggling half their lives in comparative indigence, living in their waggons, or in miserable

reed huts, without furniture, without bread,—destitute of almost everything that an Englishman considers comforts ; hunting the wild game, to save the consumption of their flocks, and feeding their Hottentot or Bushmen servants, with the flesh of the Quagha, or wild ass ; while the poorer class of Vee-boors live in this rude and roving manner, the substantial graziers in the old and settled districts, such as the Sneeuwberg, Tarka, Bruintjes-hoogte, &c., have many of them excellent houses, commodiously furnished in the African fashion, with well-stocked gardens and vineyards, and are probably the most prosperous and independent class of farmers at present in the Colony ; and some of them, especially such as reside near the drostdies, are by no means deficient either in general information or good manners. As a contrast to the preceding account of the mode of life among the more indigent sort, I subjoin the description of a family of this latter class, from the unpublished notes of my friend Mr. P., (a gentleman already alluded to in this chapter,) who travelled through the part of the Colony referred to, in 1822. I visited the same

house the following year, in passing through the Sneeuwberg, and can bear testimony that the description is correct, and the praise well merited.

“ Travelling through the mountains, we reached the place of a rich vee-boor, or grazier, a little after sunset. We found the house full of guests ; but were, nevertheless, very cordially welcomed ; and the night being piercingly cold, I requested permission to bring our bedding from the waggon, and to spread it in the *voor-huis*, or hall, on account of the delicate health of part of my family. But the *huis-vrouw* smiled at this proposal, and told me that we should have a bed-room to ourselves, and as many feather beds as we chose to make use of.

“ After eating a hearty supper, we retired to rest, and found that a spacious bed-room, containing three very handsome curtained beds, was appropriated for us. Where the rest of the company were disposed of I could not well guess. There were eight-and-twenty guests besides ourselves, all respectable-looking African farmers, or travellers, chiefly with their wives and families. I don't think there were more than two bed-rooms,

besides the one we occupied, though the house was otherwise a good and substantial one. I conclude that the women slept in these, and the men, (in the common way of the country,) in shake-downs in the hall, which was large enough, certainly, to serve as dormitory for a hundred persons in that fashion. We were accommodated (as being strangers, and English,) with the best bed-room, and had for our share four or five feather-beds, besides a profusion of blankets and quilted coverlets. These Sneeuwberg farmers seem to be in no danger of *starving*, (as a Scotchman would say,) either for hunger or cold.

“ Next morning at daybreak we had coffee, which the others drank without admixture or addition ; but sugar, cream, bread, butter, and bill tongue, were set down to us English. How they came to understand our tastes so well, I don't know ; for I should imagine few of our countrymen have yet passed that way.

“ About ten o'clock, some more company arrived, whom I found to be neighbours and relatives, come to spend the day (it being Sunday) with our patriarchal host. We were soon after-

wards invited to attend their religious service in the hall, round which the whole company were decently seated; and I was glad to see that the slaves and Hottentots belonging to the household, were also freely admitted. After singing some hymns, and reading some portions of scripture, our landlord addressed the company in an exhortation, apparently extempore, of about half an hour's length. It appeared to me very sensible and appropriate, and, in fact, much superior to the ordinary run of common-place sermons, either in Europe or Africa. It was listened to with every appearance of serious and devout attention.

“After this very becoming service, all the company sat down to a plentiful and cheerful repast, consisting chiefly of stewed meats, according to the Dutch fashion, but very well cooked, and varied with baked fruits, pastry, pickles, and salads, in abundance. The spoons, and some of the other articles, were silver, the capacious tureens of well-burnished pewter, the plates china and English delf, with napkins, &c. There was wine, but glasses were only placed for the men, who drank of it very moderately,—the women not at all.

“ The conversation turned chiefly on their domestic concerns,—the late severe rains, and the damage occasioned by them,—the news of the Drostdy, (Graaff Reinet,)—the praises of their landdrost, Mr. Stockenstrom, and the respective merits of their late Dutch, and their new Scotch clergyman. On the latter point some anxious references were made to me ; for, although I had not seen their new pastor, they conceived that, coming from Scotland, I ought necessarily to know his talents and reputation.

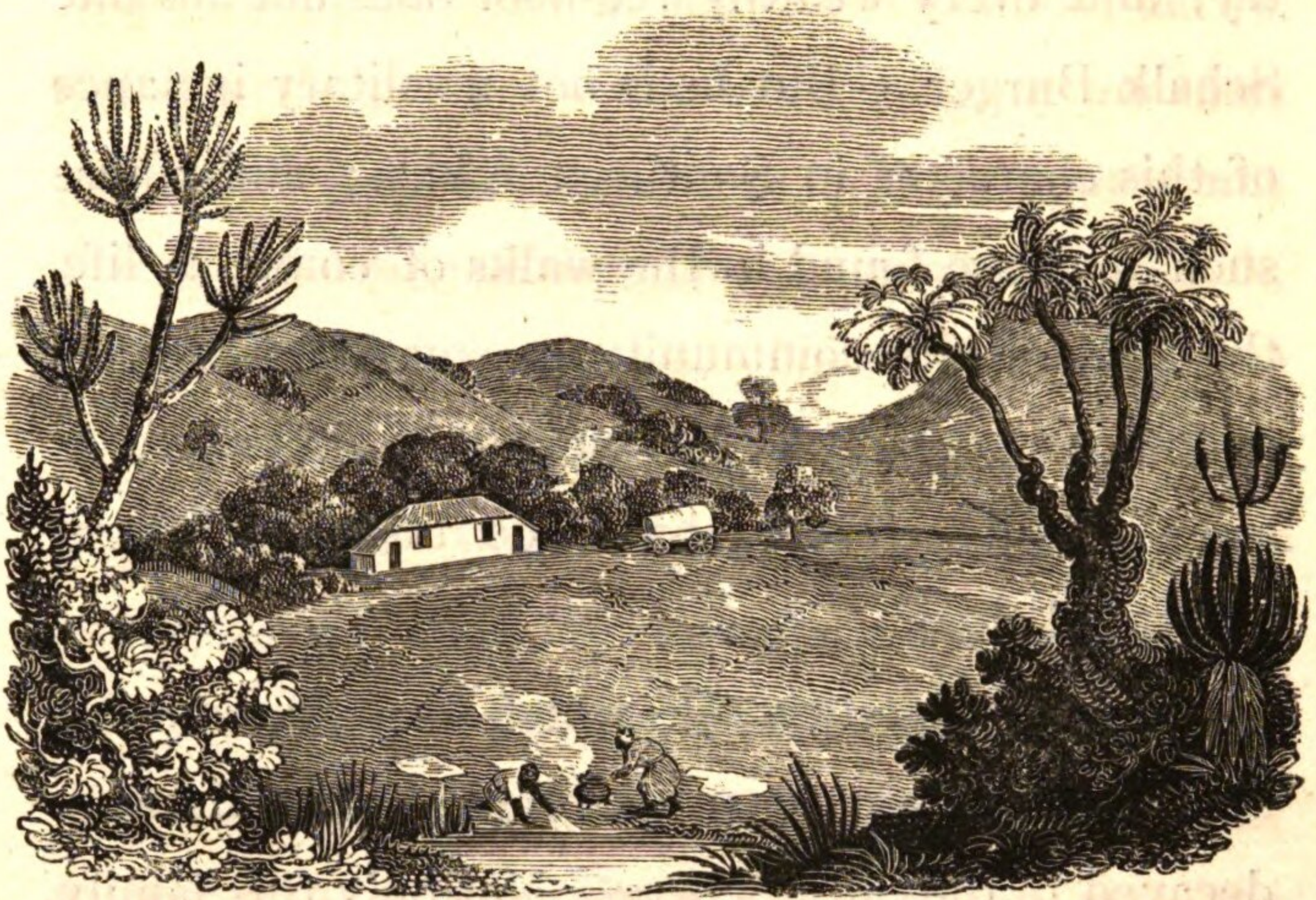
“ I left them in the afternoon, much pleased with the good-humour and good sense that seemed to prevail among these rustic inhabitants of the mountains. There was nothing very *Arcadian*, certainly, about their manners. All was plain, common prudence, and every-day life—nothing *poetical* to elevate or refine—nothing *political* to stimulate or excite. But they seemed to live a respectable, quiet life, in the bosom of peace and plenty, without being oppressed by any very engrossing cares of the present, or any deep anxiety for the future. There was nothing slovenly, harsh, or unbecoming about them—such as former tra-

vellers have described, and such as may still be found among some of the more indigent and less instructed back-country boors. Their appearance was decent and comfortable; their manners frank, hospitable, and courteous. Notwithstanding the damages occasioned throughout the district by the blight and the rains, rustic plenty was apparent everywhere: even the numerous slaves and Hottentots of the establishment looked plump and void of care. And well they might; for their master (as I afterwards learned) is not only one of the wealthiest, but also one of the worthiest men, and best masters in the Sneeuwberg. His 'substance' might almost rival that of Job and Jacob in their prosperous days. He had 13,000 sheep, and about 2000 horned cattle, besides horses, corn, &c. He has only one son, and, notwithstanding his liberal hospitality, has saved much money; and this I am told he generally lends out to his poorer neighbours *without interest*, it being a maxim with him, that it is *more profitable* to assist one's friends, than to hoard money by usury.

“ Men like this are not numerous in any coun-

try, and every wealthy vee-boor does not act like Schalk Burger. But he is not a solitary instance of this character in Southern Africa; and where such men are found in the walks of common life, the mass of the community, we may feel assured, cannot be altogether so brutal and degraded, as some English writers have too unqualifiedly represented them.

“The hospitality for which the African farmers have always been celebrated, still exists undecayed in the Sneeuwberg. Not only this family, but every other I visited in that quarter, positively refused any remuneration for lodging or provisions; and many of them made us presents of loaves of fine bread, dried fruit, comfits, &c., though they had never seen nor heard of us before, and knew neither our name nor residence.”



CHAPTER II.

Causes of the partial Failure of the Albany Settlers.—Erroneous Notions respecting the Climate.—Inadequate Extent of the Locations.—Mistakes and Misunderstandings.—Condition of the Settlers in 1823.—Subscriptions for their Relief.—Measures of Government.—Revival of the Settlement, and its Prospects in 1826.

THE origin of the British emigration to Southern Africa, and the progress of the settlement down to the close of its second year, have been amply detailed by the “Civil Servant;” and a particular description of the territory in which the emigrants were located, and of the severe distresses to which many of them were subjected,

owing to the destruction of their crops and gardens by a calamitous succession of blights and hurricanes, has been given to the public in Mr. Pringle's little tract, published in 1824.*

It is not my purpose to retrace the ground already trodden by these authors,—still less to involve myself in the maze of provincial politics, by entering minutely into the complicated disputes of the settlers with the local magistracy and the Colonial Government. But having visited the new settlement at two different periods, (first in January 1821, and again in May 1823,) and attended with much interest to its subsequent progress, I shall briefly throw together in this chapter the result of my inquiries and observations on this interesting topic.†

* “Some Account of the Present State of the English Settlers in Albany, South Africa. London: Underwood.”

† The vignette prefixed to this chapter will give the reader some clearer idea of the scenery of Albany, and of the picturesque cottages with which the superior class of settlers have now, in many places, embellished it. This little sketch is copied from a drawing of *Glendour*, on the Riet-Fonteyn, a few miles from the mouth of the Kowie, the residence of Thomas Philipps, Esq.,—a gentleman whose intelligence, urbanity, and kindly spirit, add the charm of English sociality and refinement to the pastoral seclusion of an African farm.

The general policy of this emigration, and the conduct of the British Government in regard to it, appear to me to have been animadverted on by the "Civil Servant," and others, with an undue degree of severity. That the scheme Government adopted was in some respects defective, cannot now be doubted; and it is not denied, that the class of emigrants sent out were, in many cases, ill selected. But the propriety of the measure, as a matter of national policy, is equally unquestionable, as that its more immediate purposes were liberal and beneficent; nor can its partial failure, with any justice, be exclusively ascribed either to its original projectors, to the character of the emigrants, or to the unfitness of the country for colonization. A variety of causes combined to produce this unfortunate result. The plan of allotting only 100 acres of land for each family, or each adult male carried out by the heads of parties, was found upon trial to be incompatible with the character of the soil and climate. The emigrants being selected in a great measure from the class of distressed artisans, and the indigent and unruly population of the great towns and manu-

facturing districts, were in general but ill adapted for the occupation of a new country. The plan of the large joint-stock parties was ill devised, and proved a fertile source of disunion. The heads or leaders were in many instances merely nominal, and neither in property nor intelligence superior to their followers. There were among them also, a few presumptuous, litigious, and unprincipled individuals; and almost all had imbibed, in a greater or less degree, far too sanguine notions of the general fertility of the country. All these were circumstances, no doubt, sufficiently prolific of failure and disappointment, and such as the ablest and most experienced magistracy would have found it no easy matter to obviate or overcome. But when to these predisposing causes of dissension and discontent were added the total and repeated destruction of the crops by blight, and the general dissatisfaction of the people with their provincial rulers,—it can scarcely excite surprise, that the progress of the new settlement has been but little satisfactory to all parties. The marvel is, indeed, all things considered, that matters have not been tenfold worse than they actually are.

About the close of 1823, when in addition to the total failure of the wheat crops, for three successive seasons, was superadded the destruction of the houses and gardens of the colonists to a great extent, by an excessive deluge of rain, many of the principal settlers, exasperated at the same time by what they considered political grievances, began altogether to despair of success, and were only prevented from abandoning the country, by the expected visit of His Majesty's Commissioners of Inquiry, which the majority calculated (somewhat too sanguinely) would lead to an immediate amelioration of their circumstances.

That there was ample room for improvement, both in the original scheme of their location, and in the system which the provincial functionaries had hitherto pursued towards them, was indeed sufficiently obvious. The opinions which the majority of the settlers themselves entertained on the former of these points, and in which intelligent men acquainted with the Colony now generally concur, were very distinctly stated at the time, in a paper drawn up by a gentleman of talent and experience, residing in the district, and which,

before I offer any farther remarks of my own, I shall here introduce to the notice of the reader,—without professing, however, absolutely to coincide with the writer's opinions in every particular point.

“A very erroneous and injurious impression has been of late years conveyed to Europe with regard to the capabilities of this Colony. This has been, in some degree, the natural reaction of the too sanguine expectations excited in the public mind, when its attention was first turned in this direction ; but it has, in a much greater degree, arisen from a common mistake, in considering as natural and insurmountable, obstacles which were in a great measure accidental or artificial. We have suffered three years of unprecedented scarcity ; yet as corn never was, nor ever can be our sole, or even our main dependance, the stock and capital of such of the inhabitants as were enabled to employ, in sufficient quantity, the natural resources of the soil, have continued rapidly to encrease. And even in the district occupied by the emigrants of 1820, where the population has been unnaturally condensed, where many ar-

tificial barriers to the attainment of competence have been superadded to the scarcity of food, the price of labour is still as high as in any part of the Colony.

“The travellers who have given accounts of the country, have generally, perhaps, overrated its value; but it is essential to observe, that they have not so much over-rated, as mistaken it. The advantages it possesses are of an order totally distinct from those of other colonies; and however accurate the descriptions and general statements of the writers have been, it is too evident to a resident, that the theories founded upon them have proceeded upon prejudices, which nothing but local experience could eradicate. They have applied the theories of English agriculture to a country, where it might be shown, from their own facts, to be altogether inapplicable. Mr. Barrow may be truly said to have left little room for future description, as far as his personal observation extended; yet no one of local experience could join with him in recommending any compulsory mode of condensing the population, of altering the system of farming, or of inclosing farms, in a

country, where, in the present stage of advancement, land, in less quantity than 4000 acres, is scarcely considered as worth holding, and where its value, according to the usual mode of occupation, little exceeds the actual costs of the improvements which the farmer is forced, upon his own account, to make upon it.

“ It is a general observation, that in all new countries where labour is scarce, and pasturage abundant, the most natural, because the most profitable employment of the occupant is grazing. This even holds where produce may be raised with facility and certainty, and where the demand for it is unlimited. In the eastern part of this Colony; not only is pasturage abundant, and labour and water, and spots fit for cultivation scarce, but the difficulty and uncertainty of raising crops are very considerable, and the means of disposing of them in any considerable quantity, totally wanting. On the other hand, the same circumstances of soil and climate which oppose agriculture, are so favourable to stock farming, that 4000 head of cattle may be here maintained with less labour and expense than would be required in North Ame-

rica, where winter fodder is necessary, for the support of ten.

“The writers who have described the Colony have chiefly resided at Cape Town, and have only cursorily visited the other parts of it. Hence arises the general mistake of confounding the climate of the eastern with that of the western districts. In the latter, the high chains of mountains ensure some certainty of periodical rains; whereas in the eastern parts, although the aggregate quantity of moisture may preserve a more constant verdure, yet the rains are so capricious in the period of their return, and in their duration, that the climates should always have been considered as totally distinct. Nature seems to have marked out at least this part of the Colony as a pastoral country; and when the drought of the climate, and our limited means of transport are considered, it becomes apparent, that any material change in the mode of occupying land, must rather be the result of the gradual increase of population and capital, than of any forcible interference on the part of Government.

“The situation of the settlers in Albany fur-

nishes an instance too striking to be omitted, of the effects of directing emigration into new channels, and attempting to confine it within arbitrary bounds, in a country where the usual extent of colonial grants was not sufficient to contain it. The information conveyed to the British Government was, perhaps, the best that could be procured; and, supposing it to be correct, the idea of at once providing for a numerous body of British subjects, and establishing a new Colony, was in every respect magnificent and laudable. But it was altogether impossible for Government previously to acquaint itself with the complicated detail of local circumstances, which could not adapt themselves to any general plan, and which could not fail to have the most serious influence upon the fate of the settlement. A great deal was necessarily left with the Colonial Government; and it was here, that the first and greatest of the misfortunes of the settlement was felt,—a misfortune which may at once account for many others,—the great distance of the seat of Government. Had there been an adequate authority upon the spot, it is probable that such of the settlers as

possessed the means of occupying land, would have been placed on equal terms with the Dutch boors; and that no part of them would have been long restricted to but one-sixtieth part of the extent daily and necessarily granted to the other inhabitants. A governor upon the spot would have seen and felt the necessity of departing from such of the stipulations laid down in England, as could only tend to depress and embarrass the settlers, without providing any security for their continuance in the district.

“ It is evident that the success of the settlers has hitherto been very unequal to that of the boors. If the cause were asked in Cape Town, it would be probably answered, that the difference arises from the dissimilarity of their habits; that the settlers sent out were of the wrong description; and that instead of people likely to establish themselves on farms, they appeared to consist of all the discontented artisans of the kingdom. Without examining the truth of this statement, it must be evident that no just comparison can be drawn between the success of the Dutch and English, until it is seen how they are respec-

tively situated. A boor, upon discovering water on a sufficient quantity of unoccupied land, forwards, through the secretary of his district, what he terms a "request" for a place,—that is, a memorial, asking for a grant of 6000 acres; and he will hardly pay the expense of measurement for less than 4000 acres. His memorial is referred for report to the Landdrost; and if there exists no real local objection, and the applicant prevents competition by securing the favour of that powerful officer, the land is granted as a matter of course. It is inspected and measured at an expense of from 300 to 600 rix-dollars. The annual quit-rent is fixed at the inspection, and is generally from thirty to fifty rix-dollars, perhaps about one per cent. upon the estimated value. If it happens to afford water sufficient for his own use, and a small spot for cultivation, he perhaps resides on it with two or three slaves or Hottentots; but although his tenure requires residence and cultivation, he is not in reality obliged to conform to it. The occupation is considered sufficient for all the purposes of Government, if he pays his quit-rent, and is enabled, by removing his cattle to it

for part of the year, to keep a greater stock, and pay a larger *opgaaf*.

“ To become entitled to an equal extent, an English settler must have brought out (at the expense of Government, it is true,) fifty-nine servants ; he must have paid for each of them a deposit of 10*l.*, amounting to the full value of his land ; he must employ and maintain them for three years, unless assisted by Government, at an expense of at least six times the value of his land ; and he must have gone to all this expense before he knows upon what terms he is to possess it at last. He is only certain that his quit-rent shall not exceed 120*l.*, twenty-five per cent. upon the value of his land, or about twenty-five times the sum paid by the neighbouring boors ; and the sole advantage which the settler possesses over the boor, in the mode of his location, is, that the expense of measurement is defrayed by Government.

“ It is, probably, needless to say, that no one has actually gone to all this expense ; consequently, no one of the emigrants in question possesses nearly the quantity of land which the uni-

form practice of this part of the Colony admits to be necessary to the other inhabitants. But, from the working man who has paid his 10% deposit, and expended his three years' labour upon his 100 acres, to the settler of a higher class, who has paid 300% or 400% deposit, and maintained his servants for the same period, every individual must have purchased his land at this disproportionate rate,—except for the support which the misdirected generosity of the Colonial Government has afforded to a state of things unable to stand alone.

“In the first published scheme of the settlement, it appeared to be the intention of Government that the land should only be granted in large quantities to the heads of parties; but an unfortunate deviation soon occurred. Large parties were formed under nominal heads; some consisting of a number of minute subdivisions, and others totally of paupers, independent of the head of the party, and of each other. The sole pecuniary dependence of these parties was upon the repayment of the deposits which had been wisely exacted from them in England, under a promise

of repayment at different periods. But as the country was quite unprepared for such a sudden addition to its population, Government was (it is said) under the necessity of retaining two-thirds of this sum to meet the expense of their support. This not only deprived the lower orders of the means of purchasing their first necessities, but it at once assimilated them to persons obtaining parochial relief:—and they too generally evinced the same indolence, the same discontent, and the same unreasonable ideas of right to its indefinite continuance. As the issue of rations relieved so many from the necessity of exertion, it had, of course, the effect of increasing the demand for labour; and the indentured servants of the real heads of parties, finding they could better themselves by breaking their engagements, very generally ceased working. And here another evil consequence of this indiscriminate provisioning displayed itself. The rations were declared by the military magistrates to be issued for *all*,—and the masters were ordered to supply them to their servants, whether they worked or not; consequently, the issue of rations not only did not support the

effective settlers, but it forced many of them, after either discharging their servants, or retaining them without advantage, to encourage them in idleness, by furnishing them with provisions, for which they had themselves paid.

“The deposits returned were hardly exhausted, when the first general failure of wheat crops occurred. But Government had already placed itself *in loco parentis* to the settlers, and many of them were not disposed to lose sight of the relationship. The scarcity which ensued was not more unfortunate in any respect, than in continuing an apparent necessity for this ruinous bounty, which created and supported indolence at the expense of industry, which deprived the master of his servant, and released the servant from the necessity of hiring himself elsewhere. The gratuitous issue of rations, besides its vitiating effect upon the habits of the receiver, has been injurious to the community, by supporting a class, which could not, without such assistance, have maintained themselves; and who have, now that it has ceased, almost totally disappeared from the locations. That class consists of nearly all the labouring

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people who had been placed upon 100 acres each. And this disappearance is easily accounted for. One hundred acres may possibly afford a garden, and a little tillage-ground in the winter season, but if it supports a span of oxen to cultivate it, and ten cows, it supports double the number usually calculated upon; and where a day labourer may earn from two to four shillings per diem, ten cows of the value of one pound each, forming the full stock of ten pounds' worth of land, must soon appear too insignificant to fix his attention. And although it were ascertained that this extent of land would afford a livelihood, this denomination of settlers could never be considered as likely to remain on their locations, while they could employ their labour to greater advantage elsewhere.

“ If any thing could have tended to give a healthy and natural support to such a class, it was the establishment of villages in such situations as would have furnished an increased demand for the small produce of such spots; and on this account the relinquishment of Bathurst is most to be lamented. The future increase of population,

at once creating and supplying the demand for produce, will, of course, operate a material change in the circumstances of the country, and in time naturally produce this class of farmers. But from what has been stated, I trust it is evident, that the course of improvement has not as yet produced that change; and that, consequently, if the attempt, at this time, to fix a dense population in one part of this Colony should fail, the failure ought not to be ascribed to the unfitness of the country alone, but also to the scale and prematurity of the experiment, and the injudicious measures intended for its support.

“ One circumstance should not be overlooked in enumerating the particulars in which the situation of the settlers differs from that of the boors,—the stipulation of three years’ residence previous to receiving the title to land. This regulation has, apparently, a salutary tendency, and may have such in reality, in other cases, but it has certainly had the most pernicious effects here. It has prevented a just estimation of the value of land as possessed in small quantities, consequently confining the settler to what might be unprofit-

able to himself and the community ; and it has prevented the acquisition by purchase of sufficient extent to render farming really profitable. It was the intention of Government to ensure a *bonâ fide* residence ; but experience has proved that the occupation would have been more effectual, and better adapted to the circumstances of the country, if the transfer of land had been facilitated, instead of being prevented. It is remarked by the Duc de Rochefoucault, that it is seldom that the first or second, or even the third or fourth occupier of land in America is the most effectual ; but that the more frequent the transfer, the sooner the land is likely to fall into hands able to turn it to advantage. The same traveller states, that in Canada, a regulation, similar to the one enforced here, has frequently the effect of inducing settlers, otherwise inclined to remain, to remove to the United States, and there purchase land, rather than receive it gratis under such restrictions. It is, at present, the general subject of regret among the settlers in Albany, who were formerly possessed of capital, that instead of placing themselves

under the patronage and restrictions of Government, they had not, with one half of the money which they have been led to expend upon what can never repay them, paid their own passage from England, and purchased land of sufficient extent, where, unincumbered by regulation, or restraint, or assistance, they might have been free to follow whatever system might suggest itself to their own interest or inclination.

“The power of distributing land is, perhaps, as far as regards the advancement of a new settlement, the most important prerogative that can be vested in a governor; because, if the public have no security for the impartiality of the distribution, the success of each individual, or class, must depend on the means they possess of securing favour. It would, therefore, be hardly fair to infer, that any particular class is less calculated for success than another, until it is seen whether they are equally allowed the means of attaining it; and before it can be justly concluded that discontent is peculiar to the British settlers, it should be considered how far the other inhabitants of the Co-

lony would appear satisfied, if placed on the opposite side of the strong and invidious line of distinction at present drawn in their favour.

“ The possession of the adequate means, seems to be the fairest qualification that can be required to entitle individuals to grants of public land; and perhaps nine-tenths of the original number of the emigrants could neither upon that standard, nor upon any ground of public expediency, claim more than 500 acres. That portion possess, in their labour, a stock which would be employed more profitably to themselves and the community in any other way, than in a residence upon a less extent. But the true cause of the dissatisfaction of that portion of the settlers who were possessed of the means of becoming effective occupants, is, that the scheme of the emigration has, in fact, made no real provision for an effective settlement, and that the local Government has not as yet amended the unavoidable defects of that scheme; that after having expended upon their confined allotments many times more than their value, they discover that, perhaps, all they possess has been wasted in vain; and they observe, that in as far as property

can confer consideration, their descendants, if not themselves, are likely to be depressed, not only below the rank they have hitherto held, but below the common level of the boors,—of that class of the community to whom Government continues to grant the means of competency.”

Arguments so cogent in themselves, and so ably urged as the preceding, could not fail to make a due impression upon the Commissioners of Inquiry, during their investigation into the state and prospects of the emigrants; and doubtless contributed to obtain their weighty recommendation for some modification of the system. Soon after the return of the Commissioners from the interior, Mr. Hayward, an officer of the Commissariat, was appointed by the Colonial Government to proceed to Albany, in order to inquire into and report upon all claims or disputes relative to lands either in the occupation or expectancy of the British colonists. The powers of this local commissioner were, however, too limited to admit of his doing more than arrange the division and final possession of the several locations among the respective claimants. Those who had

been the chief sufferers by the result of the emigration, remained still, in great measure, without redress : and indeed their situation in general was now such, that it was difficult to see by what means they could be saved from absolute ruin.

The injudicious issue of rations, equally to the idle and industrious, and the injurious facility with which the local magistracy had cancelled agreements made in England, had operated, in little more than twelve months, in leaving the masters generally destitute of the servants and apprentices whom they brought out with them. Many of them were, in consequence, incapacitated from continuing agricultural operations to any extent, and those who persisted in doing so, were forced to hire labourers at very exorbitant wages.

The continued failure of the crops, for three successive seasons, had at length exhausted the funds of the great majority. Their capital, with the exception of such part as had been invested in buildings and live stock, had entirely melted away. Instead of having been able to bring any surplus produce to market, they had been obliged to purchase bread corn for the subsistence of their

families. Even those who possessed the best resources began to be subjected to great privations, and many were already reduced to absolute destitution.

These were the agriculturists:—they had all suffered more or less, but their condition was almost as various as had been their former pursuits. There were among them a considerable number of gentlemen who had served in the army and navy,—some of whom still retained their half-pay, while others had sold their commissions in order to realize funds to commence farming. This class (with a very few exceptions) consisted of men of education, intelligence, and good character. There were besides these a considerable number of highly respectable families, some of whom had in England moved in circles superior even to middle life, but who had now exhausted their entire resources in this enterprise. Below these were farmers, shopkeepers, manufacturers, &c. who, apprehending the entire loss of their property from the pressure of evil times at home, had embarked it in the emigration, only to see it wrecked in Africa. Such were

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the classes of emigrants who had been by far the severest, if not the exclusive sufferers, by the failure of the scheme and the destruction of the crops.

The lower ranks, consisting of common mechanics and labourers, were spoiled, from the time of the very first location, by the indiscriminate issue of rations without the control of the masters ; and most of them, as has been already remarked, soon found means to obtain their discharge. The great demand for labour, and the high wages given by the Government contractors, and others, who were erecting buildings at Graham's Town, attracted thither great numbers of this class ; and all of them who were industrious earned a competent livelihood, and many saved money and built houses for themselves ; so that that village, a mere hamlet in 1820, rose rapidly in importance. It now contains about one half of the emigrants originally located in the district, and is (in population at least) the second town in the Colony.

From this hasty retrospect it will be seen that it was almost exclusively upon the upper and mid-

dling classes that the severe pressure fell; and while the majority of the labourers and mechanics had improved their situation, and were receiving high wages, and rising to independence, their former masters were generally involved in difficulties, and rapidly sinking to indigence. Many families were, in fact, long before the period I now refer to, reduced to great distress; and there existed little or no prospect of any effectual relief for them. They naturally clung to their locations; for, unimportant and unproductive as these were, they were all that remained to them of property. Many, too, were willing to labour, and did labour most assiduously on their own premises, whose former stations and habits of life prevented them from working for hire, or becoming the dependants of others. There were doubtless *some* individuals who clamoured loudly, and even exaggerated their privations, in order to raise contributions, by exciting the commiseration of the public:—there were individuals at once prodigal and mean, idle and importunate:—but the great majority of the classes I refer to, evinced a different spirit. Great privation was

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patiently endured by a numerous and highly respectable body of people, who concealed in the retirement of their cottages the destitution they were reduced to,—who were “unable to dig, and to beg were ashamed.” Some distressing cases of this kind have been made known, but many more, and perhaps the most severe, have been carefully hidden even from the eye of philanthropy. In a country where butcher’s meat is so cheap, that even during a scarcity it has seldom exceeded three half-pence per pound, and where, though the crops were totally destroyed, milk and vegetables have seldom been altogether wanting, very great distress for absolute want of food could not well prevail long or extensively. But to those who had all their lives been accustomed to English comfort, there existed many wants besides the want of food, and there might be much suffering short of actual famine.

A society had been instituted at Cape Town on the first arrival of the settlers, which was patronized by all the chief authorities, and liberally subscribed to by the benevolent,—of which the object was to relieve such cases of distress among

the emigrants, arising from sickness or other causes, as there existed no other provision for. The funds thus appropriated had been of great benefit ; but after the second failure of the crops, and when the issue of rations had ceased, and the clothing brought out by the middling class of emigrants had been generally worn out, it was found that penury and distress were increasing at a rate which no exertions of public philanthropy within the Colony could possibly meet. Another crop failed ; and to crown the calamities of the unfortunate settlers, a tremendous deluge of rain in October 1823 swept away nearly half of their huts and gardens.

Such was the situation of affairs with the settlers, when, at a general meeting of the society for their relief in Cape Town, it was unanimously agreed to set on foot subscriptions in India and England in their behalf. The printed reports of the society were extensively circulated, and the tract mentioned at page 333 was published in London, with the view of interesting the public in the subject. This appeal was not made in vain : about 7000*l.* was obtained, and remitted to

the Cape in the course of 1824, besides a considerable quantity of clothing.

A sub-committee of a few of the most respectable heads of parties and others had been for some time established in Albany, at whose recommendation, and through whose hands, the funds of the society had been hitherto applied to relieve only the most urgent cases; and in this manner the sums collected in the Colony (amounting from its first formation in 1820 to not much less than 3000*l.*) had been distributed. From this sub-committee a general report of the state of the settlers, including every party and family in Albany, was obtained. It was drawn up with great care and judgment, forming a most complete and valuable statistical summary,—and upon the data thus furnished, a scheme was framed for the distribution of the large funds now collected.

The distribution took place in January 1825; and about the same period, or a little before, loans to a considerable amount were issued to many of the settlers, by the Colonial Government. The full rights and title-deeds of the locations were also now made over to the different parties,

without fee or expense. The mortgages on account of the rations were cancelled, and the whole expense incurred on that account was defrayed by the Home Government. The Governor, and the Colonial Secretary, visited in person the Eastern districts, and made a circuit through the locations; and on this occasion various grievances were redressed,—claims for additional lands were considered, and in many instances allowed,—an officer of high reputation for talents and integrity was appointed Landdrost of Albany,—some of the settlers most distinguished for ability and independence, were solicited to accept appointments in the local magistracy,—and every thing, in short, was done to retrieve the settlement, and to soothe and conciliate the feelings of the people, soured by suffering, and exasperated by neglect. Had this visit of the chief authorities taken place two or three years sooner, much of the mutual misunderstanding and recrimination between the settlers and the magistracy might certainly have been avoided. But all this is now happily over—and it is far from my purpose to keep alive unpleasant recollections.

Since that period,—the beginning of 1825,—the situation of the Settlement has gradually improved. The distribution of the subscription funds took place at a most critical period, and restored comfort, credit, and confidence to a numerous and respectable class of people, who were depressed and degraded by debt and destitution; and the other favourable circumstances I have enumerated, conspired to renew the spirit of industry and enterprise which had almost given place to despair.

The *rust*, indeed, has not yet ceased to ravage the wheat crops;* but barley, maize, potatoes,

* The nature and causes of the vegetable disease called the *rust*, which has been recently so calamitous to the Cape, I do not profess sufficient agricultural or scientific skill satisfactorily to explain. Its prevalence is not altogether unprecedented in South Africa; for there are records of its existence in 1708-9-10, to such an extent that there was scarcely sufficient seed-corn left in the Colony,—and again about fifty years ago, though not in a shape so virulent. But though a grievous scourge, there is no reason to apprehend its being a perpetual one. As it has heretofore been but a temporary visitation, its ravages are probably nearly over for the present; and its departure may possibly be accelerated by change of seed and other means, in which the Government may be able to aid the colonists. The following extract, from Mr. Mier's Travels, shows that the Cape is not the only country exposed to this

pumpkins, and other vegetables, are now plentiful in the district ; and the funds put into their hands have enabled most of the settlers who now occupy the lands, to place large herds of cattle on their pastures.

calamity ; and the singular coincidence of Chile (which lies in the same latitude as the Cape, and bears a remarkable correspondence with it in climate, soil, and productions) being visited by the same distemper during the very same period, will not fail to strike the reader, and perhaps lead to some clearer understanding of its real cause and probable cure :—

“Wheat is subject to a general blight in certain seasons. I have never seen the smut in Chile, but the *rust* has of late years been more than usually prevalent. For *the three years preceding* 1824, there was a general failure in the harvests, probably owing to the lateness of the period at which rain fell. In former seasons it was usual for the rains to commence in April. So constant was this, that it was a proverbial saying throughout the country,—“*Il mes de Abril traë aguas mil ;*” but during the last twenty years, the rain has not commenced till the end of May, or the beginning of June. In the three years alluded to, the rains set in even later than usual, so as not to fall till July, August, and the beginning of September ; the consequence was, that for want of rain the soil could not be broken for sowing till July or August, whereas it was formerly tilled in April or May.

“The foggy weather, which usually follows the rainy season, formerly happened in the early growth of the corn ; a long subsequent time of warm bright weather produced a dry period, which ripened the crops without blight or mildew ; the farmers were certain of abundant crops of full-grained wheat,

The distribution of some hundreds of the refugee Mantatees among the most respectable families, as servants and herdsmen, has also been a great advantage ; while the raising of supplies for the troops and the population of Graham's Town, (formerly confined to the Somerset farm,) has opened a ready market for almost every kind of surplus produce which their fields or gardens can furnish.

The inexperience of the settlers, which was on their first arrival so great an obstacle to their success, no longer exists. Seven years of trials and privations have rendered them hardy and expert colonists. And though many of them have and hence the harvests of Chile became proverbial for productiveness.

“Owing, however, to the causes mentioned in the three years alluded to, damp foggy weather by day, and heavy dews by night, prevailed at the season when the farinaceous matter recently secreted was in the milky state : hence the rust, or blight, *showed itself first upon the stem in a red powder, which gradually fixed itself upon the ear, the corn shrivelled up, and bad crops followed all over the country.* There was barely sufficient produced for the consumption of Chile ; scarcity raised the price so high as to place bread wholly beyond the reach of a vast number of the people.”—*Mier's Travels in Chile and La Plata.*

still deficiencies to endure, and difficulties to overcome, it may now be safely affirmed that the worst crisis of the emigration is fairly over,—and that in spite of all drawbacks, the British settlement has struck fast root into the country, and will maintain its hold, and gradually extend its influence far beyond the limits of its first location. The recent appointment of a Lieutenant-governor for the eastern districts,—the extension of the privileges of regular ports to Algoa Bay and Port Frances,—and other advantages and immunities conferred by the immediate favour of the Home Government, evince the zealous anxiety which exists at the head of affairs, to afford every reasonable encouragement and support to the prosperity of our countrymen, who have introduced the language, the manners, and the enterprise of England into the wilds of Southern Africa. How far, or in what mode, it may be proper or politic to encourage farther emigration to the Colony, will be considered in the following Chapter.

CHAPTER III.

Resources of the Country for farther Colonization.—Description of the Ceded Territory.—Other unlocated Districts.—Hints and Estimates for different Classes of Emigrants.—Encouragement for Mechanics and Labourers.—Opinion of the Commissioners of Inquiry.—Comparison of the Cape with other British Colonies.

THE various circumstances detailed, or alluded to, in the preceding Chapter, will sufficiently account for the partial failure of the emigrants of 1820, without impeaching the adaptation of the Colony for the reception of European settlers. It remains to be considered what are its actual resources for farther colonization, when weighed without prejudice, and with the aid of the additional lights which the experience of the recent emigration has furnished.

It is acknowledged by every person who is well acquainted with the circumstances and resources

of the Cape Colony, that it possesses, within its boundaries, ample means of furnishing a secure and plentiful subsistence to at least five times its present population. It is, no doubt, true, that nearly two-thirds of its entire surface consists of vast ranges of sterile mountains and dreary wastes, which no efforts of human industry can render available for the wants of civilized man, and which refuse even drink and pasturage for the herds of the wandering grazier: it is, therefore, obvious, and admitted by every one, that, throughout a great part of the interior, a dense population can never exist. But the Cape is a country both of very wide extent and of very great diversity of soil and climate; its fertility, in some parts, is not less remarkable than its barrenness in others; and while a large proportion of its available territory is peculiarly adapted for stock-farming, the remainder is equally well suited for agriculture.

It is, moreover, a circumstance of no slight importance for the future prosperity of this settlement, that the tracts adapted by nature for the extensive prosecution of corn husbandry, lie all

contiguous to the sea coast ; nor is that coast (as I shall afterwards show) either of such dangerous navigation, or so ill supplied with harbours and roadsteads, as is generally imagined. Yet of this valuable territory, comprising a belt of land stretching from Hottentot's Holland to the river Keiskamma, scarcely a hundredth part has yet been subjected to the ploughshare. The districts of Swellendam, George, and Uitenhage, were originally parcelled out in cattle-farms of the usual extent of 6000 acres ; and on the profits of their live-stock the proprietors still almost exclusively depend ; for, except in the vicinity of Cape Town and Algoa Bay, there has been hitherto but little encouragement for the cultivation of corn beyond the immediate wants of the farmers themselves.* This, however, is a state of things which cannot long continue. Within these few years a considerable coasting trade has been established, and which is daily increasing. Within these few months Algoa Bay and the Kowie

* The causes of this want of encouragement,—and the foreign markets, which the Colony *might* constantly supply, will be noticed in a subsequent Chapter.

have been admitted to the advantages of general commerce. There are other bays and inlets along the southern coast not less accessible, and which, ere long, may possess equal claims to like privileges: but my business is now with the *land* alone, and to that I shall for the present confine my remarks.

Of this valuable belt of sea coast, exceeding 600 miles in length, it is true that but a small proportion now remains at the disposal of Government,—but it is not, on that account, inaccessible to British capital and enterprise. Many of the present proprietors, preferring the ease and independence of stock-farming, would willingly part with their paternal fields to new comers who brought ready money in their pockets, and would migrate with their herds and flocks to seek settlements in the interior. Others, enlightened and excited by witnessing the results of British industry, would subdivide their too extensive domains, and devote their attention to corn husbandry. And, in this manner, the large tracts, now only partially or unprofitably employed by the Dutch-African boors, would be progressively occupied

and improved, and the population of that part of the Colony rapidly increased. English capital would carry along with it, or speedily attract, English free labour, which would be found more pleasant and profitable than the employment of slaves. Fishing towns and villages would spring up by degrees at every bay and embouchure along the coast,—where mechanics and artisans would fix their residence,—where coasting vessels would come to carry off the surplus produce,—and the graziers of the inner country resort for their supplies, in place of encountering (as at present) a tedious journey to Algoa Bay, or Cape Town. Such important improvements will not be the work of a day, even under favourable circumstances,—though they *must* take place in the course of time in spite of the most discouraging,—but it is obvious that they may be vastly accelerated by the influx of British capital and labour.

I have been now sketching the probable results of a considerable influx of British emigrants into the districts along the southern coast, possessed of sufficient capital to establish themselves without any aid or interference on the part of Govern-

ment. The success of this important class of settlers, as well as the general interests of the Colony, might, however, be very materially promoted by the patronage and aid of Government being bestowed in furtherance of some well-devised scheme for directing to South Africa a large, though progressive emigration of labourers, mechanics, and small farmers. Of the encouragement that exists in the Colony for these several classes of emigrants, I shall speak separately. The assistance required from Government would be,—for labourers and mechanics merely a passage out, either entirely free, or to be repaid from their surplus wages within a specified time,—for the small farmers, some facilities to reduce the expense of the passage, and the free allotment of competent locations, in proportion to their funds.

The resources of the Colony, for the establishment of this last mentioned class of emigrants, though not unlimited, are still considerable. Albany, indeed, may be now considered as entirely occupied;—for what of it remains unappropriated, is either of too inferior quality to be worthy of attention, or will fall to be distributed among the

present inhabitants. Nor is there elsewhere, within the *old* limits of the Colony, any large extent of useful land in the hands of Government. Almost all that was worth occupation (at least in the opinion of the Dutch colonists) has been already granted away; and, assuredly, it is not my design to recommend the thorny jungle, or the sterile waste, to the acceptance of English farmers. But, eastward of the Great Fish River, there still remains, for those who cannot purchase, the valuable and extensive district ceded by the Caffers in 1819,—and which is understood to be held in reserve, by Government, for this express purpose.

This is one of the most beautiful and fertile tracts of country in Southern Africa. It is bounded on the west by the Great Fish River, and on the east by the Keiskamma and Chumi. Its upper or northern division is intersected by the Kat, the Kounap, the Gola, and other subsidiary streams, which, issuing from the skirts of the cold and cloudy Winterberg, pour upon the grassy plains below an unfailing supply of excellent water. The mountains, which cross the country in an irregular chain from the Caha to the Chumi,

are clothed, in many places, with forests of fine timber, fit for every purpose of building, husbandry, or household furniture. The Kat and Kounap Rivers, where they first issue from the mountains, are capable of being led out for irrigation, over a considerable extent of rich alluvial soil,—presenting several choice positions for future towns and hamlets, with their gardens, orchards, and corn-fields, upon the same plan as those of Graaff-Reinet, Somerset, and Uitenhage. The mountain glens, up to the very bottom of the Winterberg, are covered with luxuriant pasturage, are well wooded, and sparkling with rivulets, and competent to support a much denser population than the prosperous district of Zwagershoek, described in a preceding part of this work. The plains, extending from the mountains to within twenty miles of the sea, present, indeed, a more arid and uninviting aspect; yet they are, in many places, extremely suitable for the rearing of sheep, and are interspersed with permanent *vleys* and fountains. The verdant and diversified country near the coast, though, perhaps, not quite so favourable for sheep, is covered with abundant herb-

age, salubrious for cattle and horses ; while its loose friable soil, and moister atmosphere, peculiarly adapt it for the cultivation of grain without irrigation.

This Ceded Territory contains altogether, at a very moderate estimate, upwards of a million of acres, available either for the purposes of agriculture, or for the raising of stock. Nor are its advantages unappreciated by the Colonial Government, or by the older inhabitants. Mr. Barrow states, that even in the time of the old Dutch Government, the frontier boors were with difficulty prevented from taking forcible possession of this tract of country, then occupied by the Caffers and Gonaquas.

In 1820, the acting Governor, Sir Rufane Donkin, obtained, by a special convention, the consent of the Caffer King, Gaika, that this territory (previously evacuated by the Caffers) should be allotted to British settlers ; and, in virtue of this agreement, a considerable portion of it was surveyed, and the site selected of a projected town on the Kat River, to be called New Edinburgh ; with a view to the immediate location of some

large parties of emigrants, expected out from the West of Scotland and the Highlands. But the Highlanders were, by some unlucky accident, diverted from this enterprise; and the destruction of the Abeona Transport by fire at sea, interposed a more disastrous prohibition to the attempt of the others. This desirable country remains, therefore, still entirely unoccupied; for his Majesty's Government has interdicted, by a positive proviso, its distribution among the frontier boors, and has ordered some, who had been allowed to occupy farms in it, to be recalled across the Fish River.

Should Government not resume its former intention of locating in this district a numerous body of Scotch Highlanders, (a description of people certainly extremely well adapted for its occupation,) it will probably be, ere long, apportioned out to some other class of British emigrants. The selection will, I trust, be made with due care and discrimination. People collected from large towns, or manufacturing districts, however useful in other parts of the Colony, would prove very unsuitable settlers for the Ceded Territory. A hardy, ac-

tive, and industrious class of men,—accustomed to a country life, and acquainted with the management of cattle,—patient of privations,—persevering under difficulties,—should, if possible, be fixed here; and, with the superintendence of a judicious magistracy, they could not fail to prosper, in spite of the vicinity of the marauding Caffers.

Those tribes are, no doubt, like all barbarians, fickle and fierce, and fond of plunder. But they are, nevertheless, a very different race of men from the ferocious natives of North America. Even in their wars with us, (in which I fear they have been often as much “sinned against as sinning,”) they have never evinced a bloodthirsty or vindictive spirit; and in their occasional depredations they have almost always spared the herdsmen, when they were not in danger of pursuit. Their aversion to the wanton shedding of blood may be well appreciated from the fact, that during the seven years in which the Albany district has been possessed by the English settlers, although there has been frequent skirmishing between the Caffers and the military, and though the thickets of the Zuurveld have often been swarming with their

predatory bands, not more than five individuals, out of a population of four thousand, have fallen victims to Caffer hostility. Farther up the frontier, the Scotch party at Bavian's River, though close upon the boundary, have not lost, during the same period, a single hoof by Caffer rapacity : and on the Zwart-Key River, beyond the Winterberg, where the boors and the Tambookie tribe pasture their herds on the same plains, a quarrel has never yet occurred between the Christian and the heathen,—nor has the former ever had occasion to complain of the violence or dishonesty of the latter. On the whole, I see no reason to doubt, that with an orderly and active British population, in possession of the Ceded Territory, organized for defence under discreet officers, and our frontier policy directed by systematic regulations, at once firm and beneficent, our relations with the Caffer tribes might be hereafter maintained on a footing equally satisfactory to the colonists, and advantageous to them. The pleasing progress of the various Missionaries now occupied in the instruction of these tribes, and the increasing demand for European commodities, excited

by the regular markets now established for barter with them, cannot fail to assist in promoting this desirable result, and of rendering, perhaps ere long, the eastern frontier as secure as the district of Uitenhage is now,—which only eight years ago was exposed to continual apprehension and damage from Caffer rapacity.

Exclusive of this frontier territory, there are still some smaller tracts of useful country in possession of Government, which might, perhaps, be advantageously parcelled out to British emigrants with scanty funds. I allude more particularly to some tracts of waste forest land lying along the Zitzikamma coast, which I have not myself visited, but which, as I have been informed by an officer employed in the survey of that part of the Colony, are very abundantly supplied with water, and exceedingly well adapted for corn husbandry, and for horticulture of every description. A certain number of small farmers might be located here,—or little townships planted, which might probably form the *nuclei* of future villages. Here, at least, the settler would have neither the wild tribes nor (except the cowardly hyæna) beasts of

prey to molest him ; and with abundance of moisture, and a prolific soil, every one able to wield a spade, might easily rear vegetables sufficient (whatever were his other resources) to set famine at defiance.

Mr. Burchell, in a pamphlet published in 1819,* has pointed out a far more remote and very different tract of country to the attention of British emigrants, namely, the territory adjoining to the Cradock and Yellow Rivers, which I traversed in 1823. But although I have little doubt that the boundary of the Colony will one day embrace that remote region, I must confess I am far from considering my own countrymen the fittest class of men to colonize it. The immense distance from the coast, and the consequent difficulty and expense of travelling thither,—the want of any accessible market, either for the purchase of necessities, or the disposal of produce,—the continual annoyances to be apprehended from ravenous wild beasts (especially lions), and from wandering sa-

* “ Hints on Emigration to the Cape of Good Hope. London : Hatchard.”

vages (especially Bushmen),—above all, the excessive drought of the climate, and the general impracticability of irrigation,—form altogether a combination of obstacles, such as scarcely any class of European settlers could be expected successfully to contend with. In my apprehension, the back-country *vee-boors*, or the semi-civilized Griquas are the only fit colonists for the banks of the Gariep.

The disposable lands within the present boundaries of the Cape Colony fit for European farmers, are, it is obvious, limited,—and its capacity for the reception of emigrants is, of course, not indefinite. Space must be allowed, too, for the progressive increase of its present population ; and I am far from advocating any farther extension of our eastern frontier. Yet, with all these restrictions, I have no hesitation in asserting that the Cape still affords ample room for the reception of at least ten thousand additional settlers. I do not mean to affirm that such a considerable number could be advantageously, or even safely, sent out to the Cape in a single season,—or that any

extensive scheme of emigration upon principles similar to that of 1820, would be advisable; but I mean to say, that I consider the Colony quite capable of absorbing a progressive influx of five or six hundred emigrants annually for a dozen or fifteen years to come; and that it not only possesses abundant means for their prosperous establishment, but that their enterprise and industry, if properly directed, could not fail to develop much more rapidly than can be otherwise anticipated, the latent resources of this important settlement.

I have mentioned that the Cape Colony possesses, in my opinion, considerable claims to the attention of *three* different classes of emigrants. I now proceed to specify these several classes more distinctly, and to detail with some minuteness the course which I consider it advisable for them generally to pursue, in order to avoid disappointment, and save much valuable time and money. The facts and calculations which I shall submit for their consideration, whatever may be their practical importance, are at

least not dependent upon vague theories, but upon correct data, derived from the experience of sensible farmers, and other intelligent persons long resident in the country.

And first, in addressing my remarks to persons possessed of sufficient capital to become landholders at the Cape on an independent footing, without any aid from Government, I beg to premise that I am far from *recommending* emigration to any who possess the means of realizing a competent subsistence at home. In all new Colonies there are many discomforts, disquietudes, and grievances, of which Englishmen in their own country can have little idea. The Cape, even in its best settled provinces, is not without its share of these; and emigrants, however well provided with funds, will have, especially on their first arrival, a plentiful lot of privations and petty annoyances to encounter. They will find among "the orange and the almond bowers" of Southern Africa, no Elysian retreat from the every-day troubles of life; and, if they ever indulged golden dreams of there realizing sudden affluence, they

will soon find themselves unpleasantly wakened from the absurd delusion.

But to those who, without entertaining such romantic expectations, are desirous of removing themselves and families from the depressing anxieties of unprosperous circumstances, and who are able to carry out with them funds sufficient to purchase and stock a farm in one of the more settled districts, I can conscientiously recommend the Cape as a country where rustic competence may be securely attained without very severe exertion for the present, or harassing anxiety for the future,—where they will enjoy a mild and salubrious climate, with perfect security of life and property,—and where they may comfortably establish themselves by means of a capital more moderate, I apprehend, than would suffice for the same purpose in any other British Colony.—To persons thus circumstanced and predisposed, the following hints are offered:—

Unless the emigrant has a capital exceeding 2000*l.* sterling, (and not very many who have that

amount, will probably think of leaving Britain,) I would not advise him to expend any *considerable* sum in the purchase of stores and utensils. Until he has acquired some practical knowledge of the country, he cannot judge clearly what may be in every respect essential; and such is the diversity of local circumstances, that even an experienced resident, unless he were acquainted with the precise spot where he may ultimately settle, could scarcely furnish him with useful directions. Many of the emigrants of 1820 have had cause deeply to regret the expenditure of large sums upon machinery and implements which they have never been able to use. At the residence of one gentleman in Albany, I saw property of this description stowed up in an out-house, which had cost upwards of 600*l.* in England, and which he could neither employ profitably, nor yet dispose of without immense loss. Had the sum thus uselessly sunk been expended upon live stock, in 1820, (Merino sheep for instance,) it would by this time have more than quadrupled its value.

A few articles for immediate use will, however, be expedient. Among these ought to be a couple of strong iron ploughs, a winnowing machine, a selection of wire sieves for corn and flour, a small hand corn-mill, iron teeth or harrows, a dozen or two of spades and pickaxes, an assortment of carpenter's tools for rough work, three or four strong bridles and saddles, (the latter adapted for horses of secondary size,) a couple of fowling-pieces, and a few common muskets, &c. &c. These, with a stock of wearing apparel sufficient to last the family for three years, comprise all the luggage with which I would advise emigrants, even of the first class, to incumber themselves; and 100*l.* or 150*l.* thus expended, will, I conceive, be quite sufficient provision for the first three years: additional supplies can always be obtained, either in the Colony, or ordered from England, as they may be required.

A couple of steady farm-servants, engaged for a term of three years upon clear and well-defined contracts, and two or three boys about twelve years of age, (obtained perhaps from a poor-house,)

and regularly indentured for seven years, ought to form part of the settler's establishment. A greater number might perhaps be usefully employed, but the tendency to dissatisfaction is so great, wherever a considerable number of English servants are engaged together on long contracts, that the annoyance would probably more than counterbalance the benefit; and the master had better trust to the resources of the Colony for additional labour, (limited as these resources are,) than expend a large sum on bringing out a numerous retinue to torment his life with extravagant claims and eternal grumblings.

In all colonies where the price of labour is exorbitant, white servants are apt to become saucy and unreasonable. In America and New South Wales, matters in this respect are fully as bad as at the Cape,—in Van Diemen's Land, I believe, much worse. This circumstance forms, in fact, one of the chief inconveniences and obstructions to new settlers in all these countries, of which every book of travels furnishes abundant illustrations. At the Cape, however, the Hot-

tentot population affords an important resource. These natives are not, indeed, well adapted for regular heavy labour, nor are they likely to do well with hasty or capricious masters; but they form good herdsmen and waggon-drivers, and, when judiciously treated, generally prove useful and obedient dependents.

For the sake of domestic comfort, especially where there are children, one or two active English maid-servants would be very desirable; but if young and good-looking, it is more than probable that marriage would very speedily cancel all previous engagements. The old or the ugly are the most convenient housemaids to carry to new colonies. Except in Cape Town, an unmarried woman above twenty-five years of age is an anomaly almost unknown.

His preliminary preparations being made, the emigrant should, if possible, secure a passage direct to Algoa Bay, in preference to Cape Town,—unless he means to establish himself within a moderate distance of the latter, which would require, however, a more considerable capital than I have

taken into account. Cape Town is comparatively an expensive place, and would consume in a few weeks a sum of money which would be of no slight importance in the stocking of an African farm; while, on the other hand, by proceeding at once to Uitenhage, he could maintain his family in that village, or its vicinity, at a very moderate rate, until he had leisure to look about for such an estate as suited his circumstances. At Uitenhage, house-rent is moderate, — vegetables are abundant, — good beef is sold for 1*d.* per lb., and mutton for 1½*d.* Several genteel English families are already settled there;* and should it become the capital of the eastern districts, the population must rapidly increase. There the emigrant, should he not immediately find a farm that pleased him, might very agreeably, and not alto-

* These are chiefly half-pay officers with families. For persons of this description, the salubrious and delightful climate, and the great cheapness of living, either on a farm, or in most of the country towns, render the Cape a most eligible residence. At each of the district towns there is now an English teacher established by Government, and the clergymen are also mostly English. Female education is the chief difficulty for genteel families.

gether unprofitably, reside even for some months. He ought not to be too hasty in purchasing a place ; but should make careful inquiries in regard to the capabilities of such farms as are advertised for sale ; for the value of lands in South Africa depends much more upon local circumstances, than upon extent or external appearances.

Supposing the emigrant arrived at Uitenhage, with funds at his disposal to the amount of from 1500*l.* to 2000*l.*, it will be more advantageous for him to purchase a boor's place than to locate himself upon a new grant on the frontier, even though he has interest with Government to procure an extensive one. An estate of the usual extent of 6000 acres, with some tolerable buildings, garden, and other improvements upon it, may be obtained for a sum, varying from 6000 to 10,000 rix-dollars, (450*l.* to 750*l.*) The place being purchased, transferred, and competently stocked, the settler would find the account of his outlay since he landed in the Colony, somewhere as follows :—

Expenses of debarkation, waggon-hire, travelling in the country, residence at Uitenhage for three months, and other contingencies	-	-	-	£75	0	0
Purchase-money of an estate	-	-	-	700	0	0
Four per cent. transfer duty	-	-	-	28	0	0
A bullock-waggon	-	-	-	50	0	0
Household furniture, &c.	-	-	-	100	0	0
Forty cows of the common country breed, at 1 <i>l</i> . each	-	-	-	40	0	0
Twenty cows of the fatherland (or bastard European) breed, at 1 <i>l</i> . 10 <i>s</i> . each	-	-	-	30	0	0
Twelve good draught oxen	-	-	-	24	0	0
Twenty young oxen, at 1 <i>l</i> . 10 <i>s</i> . each	-	-	-	30	0	0
Five hundred ewes (Cape breed), at 4 <i>s</i> . each	-	-	-	100	0	0
One hundred wethers, at 5 <i>s</i> . each	-	-	-	25	0	0
Carried over				£1,202	0	0

Brought forward	£1,202	0	0
Ten mares, at 4 <i>l.</i> each	-	40	0
Four horses, at 7 <i>l.</i> each		28	0
	£1,270	0	0*

* In the above estimate I have supposed the settler to carry out no live stock, and but a moderate supply of other articles. If his capital, however, is equal to the task, he might advantageously take one or two bulls and rams, with a view of improving the breed of cattle and sheep which he will find in the Colony. To facilitate his operations too, if his funds do not exceed 1500*l.*, he might pay up only half the purchase-money of his estate at first, and the remainder by annual instalments, as is a common practice in the Colony. It is to be observed, also, that I have taken the usual price of *first-rate* farms in the interior, on the supposition that competition might somewhat raise the price of land. At present, very good farms may occasionally be had in the eastern districts, for 300*l.* or 400*l.*

The following estimate is supplied by a practical English farmer, who has spent upwards of five years in the Colony. In some points it differs from the above, being calculated rather for a settler who purposes to rear an improved breed of cattle and sheep, and to look for his principal ulterior returns from raising Merino wool, than one who commences with the common stock of the country.

Estimate

The preceding calculation (supposing the settler to land with 1500*l.*) will leave in his hands a balance of 230*l.*—which, with economy, will suf-

*Estimate of the Expenditure of a Settler with a capital of 1500*l.**

Preparatory expenditure in England:—

One year old, Devon bull	-	-	£15	0	0
One ditto, Durham or Yorkshire breed	-	-	15	0	0
Two young Merino rams	-	-	6	0	0
Six yearling Merino ewes	-	-	12	0	0
Two strong iron ploughs, with additional shares	-	-	8	0	0
One winnowing machine, with additional sieves	-	-	8	0	0
One hand corn-mill	-	-	5	10	0
One very fine wire sieve, and horse-hair cloth for flour sieves	-	-	2	0	0
A chest of carpenter's tools, with pit and cross-cut saws	-	-	10	0	0
A grind-stone	-	-	0	12	0
Spades, shovels, pickaxes, &c.	-	-	1	15	0
Two iron wheels for wheelbarrows	-	-	0	14	0
One cwt. of harrow-teeth	-	-	1	8	0
One cwt. of nails of various sizes	-	-	1	8	0
Two saddles and bridles	-	-	7	10	0
Two fowling-pieces and three muskets	-	-	12	0	0
Garden seeds of various sorts	-	-	3	0	0
Furniture, &c.	-	-	100	0	0
Cabin passage for two persons	-	-	80	0	0
Passage for two European servants	-	-	36	0	0
Freight for live stock, &c.	-	-	50	0	0

£375 17 0

Expenditure

fice for all the ordinary expenses of his establishment, until he can obtain some return of produce from his farm. For the first two or three years his agricultural operations should be very limited; and he would find it useful to avail himself, in all ordinary affairs, of the experience of the Cape Dutch colonists in his vicinity,—a class of men not deficient in shrewdness, and who, if civilly treated, will be found generally useful and friendly neighbours. In

Expenditure in the Colony:—

Travelling and other expenses previous to settling on a farm	-	-	£50	0	0
Purchase-money of a place of 6000 acres	-	-	500	0	0
Two waggons	-	-	75	0	0
Two teams of draught oxen	-	-	45	0	0
Two good saddle horses	-	-	22	10	0
Five mares, at seventy-five rix-dollars each			28	2	6
Twenty cows, averaging eighteen rix-dollars do.			27	0	0
Forty young cattle, at ten rix-dollars do.	-	-	30	0	0
One hundred yearling wethers, at two and a half rix-dollars do.	-	-	18	15	0
Two hundred ewes, at two and a half rix-dollars do.	-	-	37	10	0
			£833	17	6
			375	17	0
Total Expenditure			£1209	14	6

the course of a year or two his own experience will enable him to judge correctly of the capabilities of the place, and the peculiarities of the climate, and he may then proceed securely with such improvements as he considers practicable or expedient. In the mean while, the produce of his live stock, after the first year, will enable him to support his family in comfort, without trenching greatly on his spare capital, if he has any.

Settlers, whose clear capital does not exceed 1000*l.*, will have greater privations to submit to, and must either content themselves with places of secondary value, which may be obtained for 300*l.* or 400*l.*, or must make the purchase partly upon credit, and pay off the incumbrance by degrees.

The direct taxes in the district of Uitenhage are very moderate. They consist of quit-rent upon land, varying from fifteen to two hundred rix-dollars per annum; one skilling (or twopence farthing) for each horse; two stivers (or three farthings) for each head of cattle; four skillings (nine pence) per hundred, for sheep; two stivers for each muid of grain harvested; and two rix-dollars and two skillings (three shillings and four-

pence halfpenny) of church money. Thus, the taxes upon a farm, such as I have supposed the settler to occupy, would be as follows:—

Quit-rent on 6000 acres—say 175

rix-dollars	-	-	-	£13	2	6
Ninety head of cattle	-	-	-	0	5	2½
Six hundred sheep	-	-	-	0	4	6
Fourteen horses	-	-	-	0	2	6½
Church money	-	-	-	0	3	4½
				£13	18	1½

An addition of twenty-five and sometimes of fifty per cent. is occasionally made on the live stock, &c., to meet extraordinary expenses; but the utmost amount of direct taxes would not exceed fifteen pounds sterling. It must, however, be remarked, that the taxes in the Uitenhage district are considerably lighter than in any other part of the Colony.

In order to exhibit more distinctly the profits of farming in the eastern districts, I subjoin the following exact account of the capital invested, and the income obtained by a respectable Dutch-

African farmer in the vicinity of Uitenhage, with which I have been furnished by a friend residing in that district.

CAPITAL INVESTED.

Rix-dollars.

Value of the estate	-	10,000
Seven male slaves	-	14,870
Four female ditto, with children	-	14,100
Two hundred and thirty head of breeding cattle		2300
Sixty oxen	-	1800
Two waggons	-	1000
Sixteen mares	-	640
Three horses	-	300
Four hundred and fifty sheep and goats	-	1000
Agricultural implements, furniture, &c.	-	2000

Rix-dollars 48,010 = £3600 15 0

INCOME.

Rix-dollars.

3200 lbs. of butter—sold for 1200

Carried over 1200

Brought forward	1200	
130 muids of barley -	910	
90 muids of oats -	405	
Six cows - - -	90	
Twenty-four oxen -	720	
Rix-dollars	3325	= £249 7 6

EXPENDITURE.

	Rix-dollars.	
Quit-rent	130	— —
Taxes	43	1 3
Clothing for family	700	— —
Ditto, for slaves	400	— —
roceries, wines, &c.	600	— —
Rds.	1873	1 3 = £140 10 6

Surplus, Rds. 1451 6 3 = £108 17 0

Perhaps few families, accustomed to English comforts, could live quite so economically as even the better sort of Dutch farmers usually do, with all their hospitality ; but it must be noticed, that

the preceding calculation was made in the year 1823, when the *rust* had destroyed the whole of this farmer's wheat crops. Had this not been the case, he might have calculated upon selling about 130 muids of wheat, (or 394 Winchester bushels,) which, at ten rix-dollars per muid, would have made an addition of 1300 rix-dollars, (97*l.* 10*s.*,) to his income. It must also be observed that the capital invested in slaves, in this instance, is a great deal more than is necessary; and that slaveholding is a hazardous and unprofitable investment of property, which an Englishman, from prudential as well as moral considerations, would avoid.

All things taken into account, farming at the Cape must be allowed to afford, in ordinary times, and with competent funds, a secure income for a moderate family.

The second class of emigrants calculated to succeed at the Cape, are practical agriculturists, who can carry out small capitals of from 300*l.* to 500*l.* This class, not having means to purchase or stock a large farm, ought to receive from Government allotments of land in proportion to their

funds, of from 1000 to 2000 acres, at least : if the land consists exclusively of pasturage, the allotments should be larger. Some assistance from Government, in order to diminish their preliminary expenses, would also be highly advantageous, and might be bestowed under the security of a mortgage upon the lands granted to them, to be cleared off in a certain number of years. How important such aid would be will be obvious, from the following account of the actual expenses of a British settler, who emigrated to the Colony about three years ago, and who received no aid whatever from Government, except a grant of about 2000 acres.

Passage for himself, wife, and one			
servant, to Cape Town	-	£95	0 0
Expenses in Cape Town, and pas-			
sage to Algoa Bay	- -	47	10 0
Waggon-hire, and other expenses			
in proceeding to his location			
near the frontier	- -	11	10 0
Carried forward		£154	0 0

Brought forward	£154	0	0
One horse - Rix-dollars	70	0	
Two mares - - -	85	4	
Six draught oxen -	180	0	
Twenty young cattle -	300	0	
Twenty cows, at 10 rds.	200	0	
Five hundred ewes, at			
2 rds. - - -	1000	0	
Fifty wethers, at 3 rds.	150	0	
Two rams, at 3 rds. -	6	0	
Twenty-five goats, at			
$2\frac{1}{2}$ rds. - - -	62	4	
6 muids of Wheat, for			
seed and bread, at 20			
rds. - - -	120	0	
10 muids of Barley, at			
5 rds. - - -	50	0	
Rds.	2224	0	= £166 16 0
			£320 16 0

It will be observed, that the prices of the live stock in this statement are somewhat lower than in the preceding accounts. This is owing to the

settler having made his purchases in the interior, and partly by barter with the cattle boors. His whole capital, however, not at first exceeding 350*l.*, almost one half of it was consumed before he reached his location. In consequence of this he was unable to purchase a waggon, or any furniture except cooking utensils, and was obliged to content himself with an insufficient quantity of stock. Yet, being an ingenious and industrious man, he has in the course of three years nearly surmounted these difficulties. With the help of only one English servant, he has erected a commodious stone house of three apartments, rudely but snugly furnished by his own handiwork; he has cultivated and inclosed with ditch and wattled fence about thirty acres of land,—planted an orchard and small vineyard,—and constructed for himself a number of conveniences. His crop the first season merely supplied his family with bread; in the second, he was able to sell thirty-five muids of wheat, and sixteen muids of barley, at high prices (there being a scarcity), which brought him in about 45*l.*, and enabled him to supply his family with comforts, and to add somewhat to the

amount of his stock. The third season his crops failed from drought and rust, but he saved enough for family consumption. His flocks and herds (which are tended by Hottentots, whose wives act as household servants,) are fast increasing; and in a few years more, even without any aid from agriculture, he will be in easy circumstances. It is obvious, however, that if he had been enabled to bring to his location the whole of the slender capital he originally set out with, his circumstances the second year would have been equal to what they will now be in four or five.

It cannot, indeed, be calculated, that every settler will be equally economical and industrious as the individual now referred to; but with common prudence and activity, and with adequate grants of land, there seems little reason to doubt that six or seven hundred emigrants of this class might be prosperously established on the eastern frontier,—particularly if the Home Government should be induced to supply some facilities towards their obtaining a cheap and direct passage to Algoa Bay.

The last class of emigrants to be noticed are

mechanics and labourers. The number of these who might at once find profitable employment in the Colony it is difficult to estimate with accuracy; but from the speedy absorption of the several importations of persons of this description that have recently taken place, without any diminution of the high price of labour, it may be pretty safely inferred, that a progressive influx of three or four hundred annually, for many years to come, would scarcely meet the demand. Nine years ago, Mr. B. Moodie carried out about two hundred and fifty labourers and mechanics, who speedily dispersed themselves throughout the Colony; and who, although burthened by a severe drawback upon the profits of their labour, on account of their passage, (amounting to from 30*l.* to 60*l.* per family,) have, in general, not only cleared off that large sum, but for the most part established themselves in comfort; and not a few have acquired property. In various parts of the Colony, individuals of this party are now to be found, carrying on considerable business as tradesmen, or occupying thriving farms. I found one of them settled near the Camtoos River, who had originally been

a small farmer in the south of Scotland, but had failed and come out to the Colony without twenty shillings in his possession. In the course of seven years, however, by indefatigable industry, he had paid up Mr. Moodie's claims, had obtained a considerable grant of land from Government, (in a place which the African boors had not considered habitable,) which he had cleared and partly stocked; and in January 1826, he had purchased a waggon and was going on prosperously. Another individual of this party, who came out in similar circumstances, lately purchased an estate in the vicinity of Graham's Town for 12,000 rix-dollars, and was not only in a condition to stock it, but to pay a considerable part of the price in ready money.

These, no doubt, are favourable cases, which cannot be expected very frequently to occur; but they show that the field of enterprise is open at the Cape, and that industry and good conduct will often elevate the most indigent individuals to a higher grade in society. In fact, not a few who went out in 1820 as actual paupers, (their deposit-

money being defrayed by their parishes,) are now among the most thriving settlers in Albany.

Of the 4000 settlers of 1820, fully two-thirds consisted of mechanics and labourers, and many of them not of the most useful description; yet the great majority, as has been already mentioned, were able to obtain high wages, and to improve their circumstances even during the greatest distress of the settlement. The greater part of these are now comfortably established in Graham's Town, or in other parts of the Colony,—while the agriculturists are distressed for want of servants.)

In December 1823, Mr. Ingram brought out to Cape Town 352 Irish labourers, who in a short time obtained employment in that town or its vicinity, without producing any sensible effect on the rate of wages. Although the Home Government had defrayed the charge of the passages of these people, they had also entered into agreements to pay Mr. Ingram each a considerable sum of money, being three hundred rix-dollars for a male, two hundred for a female, and one hundred and fifty for a child; and this burden forms the

aid to pay for the labourer to pay for his

only obstacle to their speedily attaining a state of comfort and independence entirely beyond their reach in their native country. In future, it is to be wished, that care should be taken, that the poorer emigrants are burdened with no mortgage upon their labour beyond the expense of their passage.

After all these emigrations, such is the urgent demand for labourers, particularly in the eastern districts, that some of the English landholders of Albany have recently deputed one of their body (Mr. F. Carlisle) to solicit assistance from the Home Government, in this point, — pledging themselves, by a written engagement, to take into their service the number of seven hundred and eighty labourers, (including men, women, and children,) provided they be sent out at the expense of Government, and engaged to them for the term of three years, at the rate of 12*l.* each per annum, with provisions. This, indeed, scarcely amounts to one-third of the present rate of wages in that part of the Colony ; but the settlers argue, that three years' service, at this rate, will be but a moderate price for the labourer to pay for his

passage out to a country where his situation will be so much improved,—while the expense on the part of Government will not exceed 15*l.* for each individual sent, and would at the same time prove the most suitable recompense that could now be offered by the mother-country to those emigrants of 1820, who suffered most severely by the defective plan of their location, and the unexpected failure of their crops. The following extracts from a Report of His Majesty's Commissioners of Inquiry to the Home Government, dated June 1, 1825, contain some observations relative to this subject, which, proceeding from such high authority, must be considered at this moment as peculiarly important:—

“Notwithstanding the importation of so many European labourers into the Colony from time to time, the high price of labour has not hitherto been perceptibly affected.

“Mechanics and tradesmen of all classes, especially tailors, shoemakers, saddlers, bricklayers, upholsterers, coopers, sawyers, carpenters, and blacksmiths, meet with ready employment in Cape Town, and are in as great demand in the

country districts, where common labourers in husbandry continue also to receive high wages.

“It is admitted by all persons, except those who derive subsistence from hiring out the labour of their slaves and prize negroes, that the importation of European labour has been beneficial to the Colony, as well as to those labourers who have been endued with habits of common industry, and the labourers themselves are in general well contented with their circumstances.

“If his Majesty's Government should be induced to make advances for the transport and maintenance of labourers and mechanics from any part of the British dominions to the Cape of Good Hope, it would be satisfactory that these persons should understand that their industry would enable them to redeem the sums so advanced within a reasonable time; and that no other deduction from their wages would be required than might be sufficient to cover the expenses of the voyage. If 15*l.* should be sufficient to provide for the transport of a labourer to the Cape, and that he should be entitled to redeem the charge by a deduction of fifteen to twenty-five shillings per month from

his wages, he would acquire the free disposal of his labour in twelve or twenty months ; and in the same manner for each individual of his family who should be capable of service. For this payment the masters should become responsible to the local authorities of the district ; and we think, that under the present circumstances of the Colony, and especially in that part of it where, on account of the prohibition of the employment of slaves, the wages of free labour are likely to continue high, a more punctual performance of the conditions of repayment is to be expected, than if the exaction of them was made dependent upon the interest of an individual.

“ If it is an object of importance to the British Government to extinguish the evil of slavery in the newly planted settlement of Albany, and to take away the many temptations to it that exist in that quarter, from the vicinity of the savage tribes on the frontier, it will not feel reluctance, we think, to incur the inconsiderable expense that we have proposed of one pound per head for every free labourer who may be induced to emigrate, as a compensation for the charge of their

superintendence. We have already described the advantages to the labourer with which the exemption from this charge would be attended ; and although the repayment of the advance for his passage would constitute a present deduction from the profits of his industry, it might be effected by such moderate instalments from his wages, as would not expose him to any severe privations.

“ We cannot omit to observe, that any facilities that His Majesty's Government may deem it expedient to afford to the British settlers in Albany, in obtaining the farther assistance of labourers from Europe, would be a seasonable relief to them after their late privations, and constitute a satisfactory indemnity for their early disappointments.”

These suggestions, I doubt not, will meet with due consideration in the high quarter to which they are addressed, and lead to such measures as, in the circumstances both of the Colony and the Mother Country, may be found most expedient.

The extent of the demand for labourers, and

the rate of wages, vary considerably in different parts of the Colony.

At Cape Town the Commissioners state that mechanics and useful tradesmen usually obtain from three to four rix-dollars per day, together with subsistence and lodging; and the common labourers, from a rix-dollar and a quarter to two rix-dollars, besides subsistence;—but that all of the latter class had not been able to procure regular employment at this rate; the hire of a slave or free coloured-labourer not exceeding twenty rix-dollars per month, together with subsistence and lodging.

On the eastern frontier the demand for labour is more urgent, and the wages higher. Mr. Carlisle, in his examination before the Emigration Committee of the House of Commons, has stated the average rate for artisans to be from ten to twelve shillings sterling per day, and for labourers from four to five shillings. This I should consider as rather a high average, although these wages are doubtless in some instances obtained. The price of labour would also inevitably be reduced by any considerable influx of that descrip-

tion of settlers, unless new capital should at the same time be attracted to the improvement of the Colony. But it would require a much more sudden and extensive influx of labourers than is likely to take place, to reduce wages below a moiety of the present average; and that, in my estimation, would still be a very competent remuneration in a country where subsistence (and especially animal food) is so reasonable.*

In whatever scheme may be ultimately adopted for promoting emigration to the Cape, I trust Government will be careful to make a due proportion of females an indispensable proviso. The evils of a neglect of this important circumstance have been disastrously experienced in more than one of our infant settlements; nor have they been altogether unknown at the Cape, where the illicit

* In the districts occupied exclusively by the Dutch colonists, the demand for European servants is much more limited than at the two extremities, where the English population predominates. The Dutch proprietors in the interior are generally inclined rather to postpone improvements than to pay such a high price for them. English artisans are, however, now found scattered among them even in the remotest quarters, and many have married into their families and settled among them.

connexions of Europeans with females of the coloured population has but too obviously tended to the degradation of both classes.*

I shall conclude this chapter with an extract from the pamphlet (already quoted) of my friend Mr. Pringle, which being written only for a temporary purpose, is, I believe, already out of print; and the author's opinions will, probably, not be considered unimportant on the present subject,

* I am by no means inclined to fall in with the system, too much in fashion now-a-days, of attributing crimes not to the ill-regulated passions of mankind, but to the temptations to which men are said to be exposed by the peculiar state of society, for which their governments are held answerable; but in a scheme like that of a great emigration, when a more direct interference with the details of society is exercised, a weightier responsibility falls, I conceive, upon the patrons of the enterprise. If men, unsolicited, think proper, from whatever motives, to expatriate themselves, or to follow a line of life subject to peculiar privations, or peculiar temptations, "their sins be upon their own heads;" but I cannot avoid protesting most strongly against colonization upon an extensive scale, whether by the transportation of convicts, or by the tempting of settlers by grants of land, where the great principle of Nature proclaimed by the Deity himself, that "It is not good for man to be alone," is for a moment overlooked; and I would appeal to the conscience of a Christian government how far it would be responsible for the enormities resulting from the deliberate creation of a state of society *repugnant to the order of Nature.*

when it is mentioned that he was the leader of the Scotch party, located at Bavian's River, the most successful, perhaps, of all the settlers of 1820, and is intimately acquainted with the general situation of the Cape Colonists, and the whole circumstances of the emigration.

“ With all the defects of this country and climate, I am fully satisfied that, in ordinary times, it is not a *worse*, but perhaps a *better* land to live in than any other British Colony. And however startling this opinion may appear, after all that has recently occurred in Albany, I believe a hasty comparison will discover it to be not so very preposterous as many persons may at this moment be apt to imagine ;—for the fluctuating tide of public opinion appears to be now turned as unreasonably against, as it was formerly extravagantly in favour of South Africa. True, the Cape is exposed to droughts, rust, storms of hail, excessive rains, diseases in cattle, marauding Caffers, Bushmen, beasts of prey, serpents, and so forth :—but, after a pretty intimate experience of all these annoyances, I am convinced that they are not worse than others of a similar or analogous description

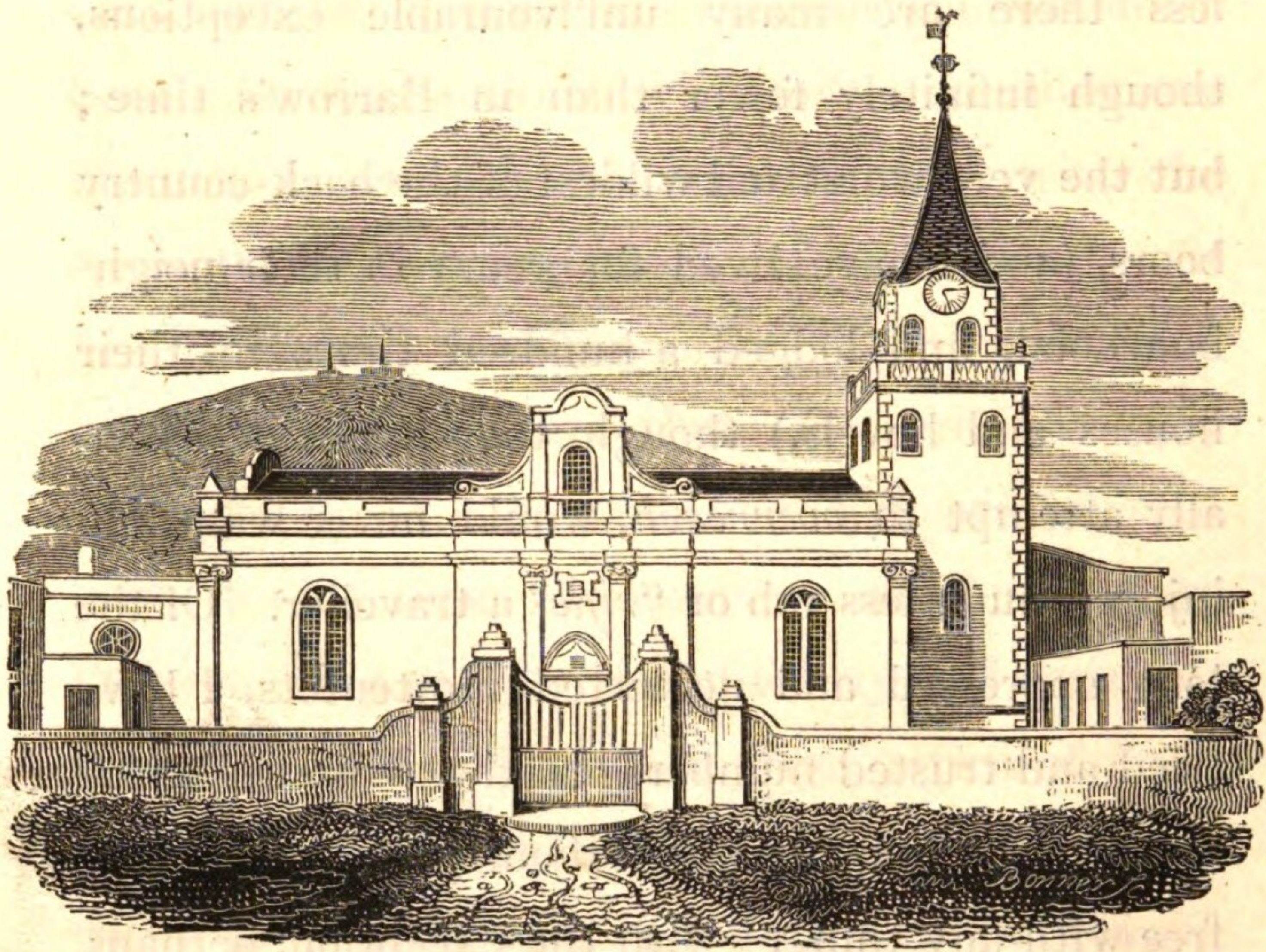
which prevail more or less in all new colonies. In New South Wales, for instance, they have also their droughts, deluges, and destructive hurricanes, which have more than once reduced the colonists to the verge of famine ;* and in Van Diemen's Land they have the barbarous Aborigines, and the more barbarous "Bush Rangers," to destroy their property and disturb their quiet. They have, moreover, scarcely any other servants than convicts, and little society that is much superior. In Canada, again, they have an iron winter to endure and an endless forest to hew down ; not to mention rattle-snakes, ounces, bears, treacherous Indians, and strifes and bush-fightings with brother Jonathan, to molest the tranquil happiness of a log-hut retreat from the troubles of Europe. A settler, in whose hospitable cabin I spent a night near the Kapp River, (in Albany,) and who had formerly resided some years in Canada, assured

* Mr. E. Curr, who has published a very sensible and impartial account of Van Diemen's Land, states, that in the year 1821, 50,000 bushels of wheat were exported from that island to Port Jackson. "This," he adds, "was a season of great scarcity in New South Wales,—a circumstance which, from one cause and another, has occurred about every three years since its establishment."

me, that he counted all the natural defects of South Africa, balanced by its mild and salubrious climate, as but slight, when compared with the appalling winters and woods of that colony. At Mr. Birkbeck's paradise on the Wabash, also, and its vicinity, it appears that they are not only scarce of water, like ourselves, but are afflicted with deadly swamp miasmata, which we here know nothing of,—besides “liberty and equality” servants, eternal litigations about rights of land, scalping back-wood Indians, and, worse than all, “rifling,” “gouging,” and “scalping” back-wood Whites.

“Here, on the contrary, whatever other evils we may have to complain of, there is certainly no danger of life, and little of property, except occasionally from the Caffers along the frontier line. And the Caffers, even under the least favourable points of view, are an honest, humane, and civilized race, compared with the red or white sayages just mentioned. The African boors I know well, and can thoroughly estimate; and with all their faults, I do not hesitate to characterize them as a well-disposed and respectable class of men. Doubt-

less there are many unfavourable exceptions, though infinitely fewer than in Barrow's time ; but the very worst and wildest of the back-country boors, (and I have lived for years in their neighbourhood, and lodged a hundred times in their houses and hovels,) though they might occasionally attempt to *overreach*, would never wantonly injure, much less rob or "*rifle*" a traveller. Of the long oppressed and neglected Hottentots, I have tried and trusted numbers in the most unlimited manner, and never knew them purloin or make free with any thing,—with the exception, perhaps, of a little brandy or tobacco at a time of temptation ;—and I never saw them display any spirit of revenge, and seldom even of resistance, under the most severe and contumelious treatment. As for the slaves, they are (and necessarily must be) unhappy, debased, and dangerous in all countries ; but here they form but a moderate part of the population, and are fortunately not permitted to degrade the English settlements."



CHAPTER IV.

Retrospective and General Remarks.—Notices of some of the Plates and Vignettes.—Character of the Inhabitants of Cape Town and its Vicinity.—The Press.—Commissioners of Inquiry.—Wine-Trade.

IN the present work I have endeavoured not to fatigue the patience of the reader, by leading him over the beaten tracks of former travellers, and particularly of those of more recent date; and when I have been compelled to follow in the same paths, it has been my aim to select for him those

points of view, which, from lapse of time, or other causes, present a contrast to the aspect they wore when seen by my precursors. I have studied rather to supply what they have omitted, than affected, by blending their materials with my own, to give such an elaborate account of the Colony, as would require the united talents of the naturalist, the historian, and the statesman. I may, therefore, be excused from repeating the oft-told tale of the discovery of the "Stormy Cape," by the Portuguese Admiral, Bartholomew Diaz, in 1493, and the prophetic change of its name by his Sovereign; of its settlement by the Dutch under Van Riebeck, in 1650; of its increase by the arrival of the French refugees, upon the revocation of the edict of Nantes,—and its gradual rise to an important Colony; of its capture by the British arms, in 1795; its restoration at the peace of Amiens; its subsequent capture, and final annexation to the British dominions in 1806.

Were it possible to trace the gradual extinction of the Hottentots, as a nation, within the boundaries of the Colony, by the progress of European civilization and encroachment, the detail would,

unfortunately, not have even the charm of novelty to give interest to it. The same acts of rapacity and cruelty which marked the progress of the Spaniard in Mexico and Peru, and of the Englishman in North America, have merely been acted over again by the Dutchman in Southern Africa. The superior force, enterprise, and address, and still more, the dissemination of the worst vices of their conquerors, have produced their usual effects, —till the numerous tribes, whose habits are detailed with such disgusting accuracy by their matter-of-fact historian Kolben, and with so much poetic licence by the enthusiastic Vaillant, have been gradually driven from the kraal to the bush, or amalgamated with the general mass of the servile coloured population. Justice and humanity array our feelings on the side of the invaded people ; and God forbid that I should palliate the violation of either of those sacred principles ! But when we cannot approve the means, it is at least some consolation to find that the result has been the improvement of the frame of society ; and I have seen quite enough of savage life to be con-

vinced, that for the Hottentot huts of Kolben's picture, the Hottentot square of my map is no bad substitute;—nor does Le Vaillant's truly French description of Pampoen Kraal raise in me the least desire to see that terrestrial Paradise re-peopled by its primitive inhabitants.

The natural history (and particularly the botany) of this Colony has had its full share of investigation, both in its former and latter days, in the works of Thunberg and Sparrman, of Lichtenstein and Burchell, though their remarks are by no means confined to these subjects; but it is in the well-known and valuable publication of Barrow that we are first presented with a comprehensive and statesman-like view of the Colony. The travels of the Missionary Campbell are chiefly valuable for the information they contain on the subject of the tribes beyond the colonial boundaries; but the work to which I feel most indebted for shortening my labours on my return from my *Country* travels is the publication entitled "The State of the Cape of Good Hope in 1822;" for all that I could say on the subject of the *Town* and

its buildings, of the people and their habits,* of the Colony in general, its Government and politics, has therein been so recently, and so very well detailed, that I may safely refer the reader to it as a generally correct view of the subject at the time it was written; merely noticing some circumstances of importance which have occurred since that period, and stating some points where my opinions do not quite coincide with those of the author.

Of the general appearance and topography of Cape Town I have endeavoured to give the reader a competent idea in the plates and wood-engravings inserted in different parts of the work. The frontispiece, and the view of the Commercial Exchange and Table Mountain, have been already mentioned in the preface. The plan of Cape Town (engraved on stone) is from an actual survey, and gives a most correct notion of the localities of the town:—in one corner is a small vignette engraving, showing the appearance of the

* A summary of the present population of Cape Town, of the Cape District, and of the Colony in general, will be found in the Appendix.

town in 1709, taken from a plate in Kolben's work, and which forms an amusing contrast to its present appearance ;—in another corner is a view of my residence and house of business, which gives a very good idea of the respectable class of houses in Cape Town, with the exception of its being one story higher than usual. As a representation of a country seat of the superior class of Dutch inhabitants I have given a view of the house of D. Van Reenen Esq., situated about six miles from Cape Town, on the Newlands road,—than which few houses are better known, both to occasional visitors, and to the inhabitants of the Colony,—the owner of it uniting the frank hospitality of the old Dutch colonist with the enterprising spirit of modern times.* A drawing of Newlands, the country residence of the Governor, and a wood engraving of a small marine villa at Camp's Bay,† occasionally occupied by his Excellency, are also given ; and these, with the vignettes of the Calvinist Church,‡ and of the Lighthouse at Green Point, altogether afford a very fair criterion of

* *Vide* page 110.

† Page 256.

‡ Page 232.

Cape architecture, to which the Observatory now erecting will form a splendid addition.

Of the habits and customs of the Cape-Dutch in Cape Town and its vicinity, I need only say they are becoming every day more decidedly English, and, of course, less like the picture drawn of them in the recent work above-mentioned; though, very probably, when seen from the elevated point of view which the author is supposed to hold in Cape society, his delineation of them may be a very natural one. But to those whose more humble situation in life has placed them in closer contact with these people, it will be a matter of regret if they ever so entirely change, as to lose some of their present characteristics. They are a frank and hospitable, and at the same time a prudent and thrifty race; and however vulgar the notion of buying and selling may be, such habits are surely more fitted to promote the interests of an infant society, and therefore less obnoxious to ridicule, than that supercilious affectation of gentility, which not unfrequently hides beneath its aristocratic garb as much avarice and meanness as

can be found in the most sordid "*smous*" of the Colony. Whatever may be a Cape-Dutchman's love of money, and whatever trickery may be imputed to him in its acquisition, I believe there are few Englishmen of business who have not lost infinitely less by their dealings with them, than with their own more liberal and dashing countrymen ; though, in justice to England, it may perhaps be remarked, that the brightest examples of the national character for steadiness are not always found in her colonies. I am, indeed, rather inclined to think that the least reputable transactions of the Cape-Dutch community have been brought to light rather in their official, than in their commercial society ; and therefore I have some consolation in reflecting on the great improvement that must take place among the Dutch civilians in process of time, if they keep steadily in view the examples of integrity and disinterestedness set them by their English associates in office,—however much the love of money may prevent the trading part of the community from emulating the high character usually ascribed to

the English merchant ; an example of which (according to this author) is far from being set them by the English traders of the Colony, whose inflated pride, luxury, and extravagance, form so prominent and facetious a feature in his portraiture of Cape society. I cannot also but wonder that a sensitiveness to being rallied on his political degradation, which we should admire in an Englishman, should be added to the catalogue of the *faults* of the Cape-Dutch character. As a matter of pecuniary calculation, they have rather gained than lost by their political exchange ; so that, “ mix their motives ” as you will, it would seem that there is at least one point upon which the Cape-Dutchman’s avarice is not the paramount feeling.

It is not my intention to extend my travels into the thorny regions of Cape politics, but it can no longer be said that “ Politics have no field in South Africa large enough for an Englishman.” The establishment of two weekly independent newspapers has opened a theatre for political contest, which would never have been found in the tame official columns of a Government Gazette ; and the

combatants appear to have set to on both sides without flinching. The measures of government are now as thoroughly canvassed as could be desired by the staunchest advocate for freedom of political discussion ; and this, it is to be hoped, will insensibly produce some of those beneficial effects which the same system has diffused throughout the British empire. Were the conduct of the Colonial Government, however, to be the only matter of discussion in these journals, their general utility would be infinitely less than I think it promises to be. The heat of political animosity, which, from temporary causes, has made newspaper reading at the Cape more fashionable than it would otherwise have been, must insensibly cool ; and the editors will have to trust to subjects of a less exciting, though perhaps of as useful a nature, wherewith to interest their readers ; and from the experience we have had, there does not appear to be any deficiency of talent either in the editors, or the occasional contributors to these papers, which should make us despair of seeing the various subjects to which a newspaper is open, treated with judgment and propriety. *News* must

often be scarce in a place like the Cape, and therefore when the few subjects of local interest and fashion are disposed of, and the advertisements, prices current, ship news, &c. inserted, there will still remain a considerable space to be filled with literary, or other interesting matter, which would probably never have fallen under the observation of the casual reader through any other channel; and upon the skill with which this part of the business is conducted, will depend much of the success of the rival journals. Whether the advantages of a free press in a Colony are to any great extent counterbalanced by corresponding evils, I leave others to discuss; but like many other moot points between the new and old schools, whatever becomes of the theory, the practice is established, and the freedom of the Cape press appears fixed upon a tolerably secure basis.

Another circumstance of still greater moment was the arrival, in July 1823, of his Majesty's Commissioners, J. T. Bigge, and W. M. G. Colebrooke, Esqrs., invested, by letters patent under the privy seal, with "full power and authority to inquire into all the laws, revenues, regulations,

and usages prevailing in the Colony, and into every other matter in any way connected with the administration of the civil government, the state of the judicial, civil, military, and ecclesiastical establishments, revenues, trade, and internal resources thereof ;” and the same document requires “ the Governor, and all and every officer and minister within the Colony, to be aiding and assisting in the due execution of the Commission.”

Had their means of inquiry been confined to these official sources, and had it been conducted during the quiescent periods of the olden times, their task even then would have been no light one, though committed to hands whose patient and laborious spirit of inquiry entirely fitted them for the office. But arriving, as his Majesty's Commissioners did, at a time when the recently imported English leaven was fermenting the whole mass, their labours must have been increased beyond all measure by the quantity of volunteer information poured in upon them. Nor was their situation, from this cause, less delicate than laborious, abounding, as the Colony did, from the peculiar circumstances of the period, with com-

plaints, not only of the system of government, but of those who administered it, which they could neither shut their ears against, without violating the spirit of their commission, nor listen to without encouraging the newly raised spirit of resistance to a Government now no longer considered as of paramount authority.

Did not the history of both ancient and modern republics show us how compatible with their own boasted freedom is the practice of the greatest tyranny over others, we might feel some surprise, that from a country which laid the foundation of her own liberty at the expense of so much blood and treasure, should have emanated a system of government so despotic as that of the Dutch Colonies, where the gallows,* the branding-iron, and the whipping-post, appear to have been the common methods of enforcing subordination amongst the lower classes ; while fines, imprisonment, and arbitrary banishment, secured the authorities

* Two of these erections appear to have existed in former times. Whether there was constant use for both of them I know not, or whether they were only placed as a terror to evil-doers.

against any annoyance from the more elevated ranks. That under such a system those possessed of influence should abuse it to their own emolument, is nothing wonderful ; and, accordingly, we find peculation in all its shapes the besetting sin of those in power, and the most abject submission to every thing bearing even the shadow of authority, the characteristic mark of those placed without the official pale ;—while the meddling and monopolizing spirit of a trading company, seeing in its own immediate profit the only end of government, frequently interfered in many of the more important transactions of private life.

That the mere transfer of such a *system* to English hands, however it might mitigate its brutality, should entirely put an end to its less revolting abuses, was hardly to be expected ; to administer it without blame would have required, according to Pope Gregory's pun, “ *Non Angli sed Angeli ;*” and, consequently, we may suppose, that the Commissioners must have been occasionally mortified by the discovery of such evil fruits as a tree so corrupt, as I have been describing, could not fail

of bringing forth, into whatever soil it might have been transplanted.

To the suggestions of the Commissioners may probably be attributed the recent change in the form of government, by the appointment of a Lieutenant-Governor, (the more immediate object of whose attention is to be the administration of the newly settled territories,) and of a council consisting of Sir John Truter the Chief Justice, Sir Richard Plaskett the Colonial Secretary, the second in command of the forces Lieutenant-Colonel Daniell, Lieutenant-Colonel Bell, W. Bentinck Esq. Auditor-General, and J. W. Stoll Esq. Receiver-General; the chief civil and military officers of the Colony.

To the governed, this can scarcely fail to be of advantage; while to any Governor it must be satisfactory, as a means of diverting from him much of that popular odium, which is too apt to attribute to the personal feelings of a chief magistrate, measures which may arise from a totally different source. Other changes in offices of less moment will, doubtless, take place; but, though far from

feeling indifferent to the nature of the Government under which I am destined to pass some considerable period of my life, I must confess I look with much less interest for that part of the Commissioners' Report, which may embrace those subjects popularly denominated "Politics," than I do for that portion of their labours, which will doubtless refer to the internal and commercial resources of the Colony, which they have had so good an opportunity of thoroughly investigating. On their view of these subjects hinges much of the future welfare of the Cape. Their recommendations of any improvements may probably be followed up by the British Government with the same benevolent and judicious spirit, which dictated the formation of the Commission; and surely never did any unhappy settlement more require the kindly and fostering hand of the parent country than this Colony, whose misfortune it is to form no component part of the great "Interests" that are accustomed in England to unite for their common benefit or protection. Tamper with the rum, sugar, or slave population

of the least of our American Islands, and the whole "West India Interest" is in arms. The philanthropy of the "East India Interest" is equally alive to the benefits to be derived from the free-labour cultivation of the tropical productions. Whether as to meal or malt, the carcase or the fleece, the "Agricultural Interest" takes especial care that rents shall not be lowered by any undue pressure upon the farmer or the grazier;—while from Exeter and Leeds, from Manchester and Glasgow, Belfast and Dundee, to Norwich and Macclesfield, Birmingham and Sheffield, the cheap loaf, and a fair protection of our Home Trade, is the united watch-word of the "Manufacturing Interest." The long-cherished pride of our maritime superiority generates in every English heart the strongest sympathy when any evils threaten the "Shipping Interest," however much cheap freights, and universal freedom of commerce, may be applauded by the thorough-bred "Mercantile Interest," of the new school. Amidst the din of such conflicting demands, sometimes too unreasonable to be complied with, and their advocates too powerful to be silenced, it is less

wonderful that the feeble voice of this isolated Colony should so faintly strike upon the deafened and distracted ears of ministers, than that they should have done her all the justice that more powerful claimants on their favour would permit them to do.

This has been strongly exemplified in the recent measures adopted with respect to the staple produce of the Colony—its WINES,—wherein the *Colonial* interests of the Cape cultivator have been sacrificed to those of the *foreign* wine-grower, in a way which would not have been tolerated in a contest between the Colonial spirits of the West Indies, and the foreign spirits of France or Holland. At a period when universal war made it doubtful how long we might be able to procure from our enemies, or our allies, a cheering glass to alleviate our troubles, it seemed good to His Majesty's Government to open at least one resource for our drooping spirits by giving every possible encouragement to the growth of wine, “to make glad our hearts,” within our own territories; and accordingly, “by a Government Proclamation, issued 19th December, 1811, the

cultivators and merchants of the Colony were directed to the subject of the wine trade, as a consideration, of all others, of the highest importance to its opulence and character ;” and such proclamation, after authoritatively demanding from the settlement a serious and lively attention to their interests, promised “ *the most constant support and patronage on the part of Government*, and that no means of assistance should be left unattempted to improve the cultivation, and every encouragement given to honest industry and adventure, to establish the success of the Cape commerce “ *in this her great and native superiority.*” This proclamation was followed up by the appointment of a Wine Taster and Examiner of Casks,—by the repeated publication of the best advice and information as to the best method of culture and the management of the wine,—by the offer of *premiums* to those who planted most largely, and those who produced the best wines,—by a promise that the old channels of this trade should be re-opened, and new ones found,—and by a variety of regulations, all evincing strongly the lively interest which Government took in promoting this

trade, and which were fully ratified by the Act of July 1813, admitting Cape wines to entry at one-third the duties on Portugal Wines.”*

The effects of these measures fully answered the expectations formed of them; the Colony rapidly advanced in wealth from the ready sale of its surplus produce, and additional property has since been embarked in this trade to the extent of at least half a million sterling; while, in England, the wine drinker of moderate means, driven from the use of the higher class of foreign wines, as well by their increased and increasing prime cost, as by the high rate of taxation, found in the equally wholesome, though perhaps less palatable produce of our Colony, a medium between the entire desertion of his accustomed habits, and a resort to the less gentlemanlike system of grog-drinking.

That the extension of the Colonial system to this new species of wine should give umbrage to those whose “craft was in danger” from its introduction, will excite little surprise; and conse-

* Memorial to the Treasury in 1824.

quently Cape wine has ever been marked out as an object of execration by the "Foreign Wine Trade,"—its quality traduced, and the dangers of frauds upon the revenue pointed out to Government with a dexterity which, coming from a quarter so practically conversant in the "tricks of the trade," could not but be perfectly convincing. The consequence of this organized hostility was, that when the duties on foreign wines were lowered nearly one half, and the Cape duties left at their old rate, the interviews between the Cape merchants, and those with whom the power of relief rested, very much resembled the parley between Yorick and the mendicant Friar—"But the *best reason* of all was, I was *predetermined* not to give him a single sous."

The palpable cruelty of prematurely withdrawing a protection which at once depreciated the value of each person's property, who had been *tempted* to invest it in this now proscribed article, to the extent of at least one-third, drew forth from the Colonial Department, highly to the credit of their humanity, very strong remonstrances upon the subject. But it had become

a Treasury question; and *there* its insignificance amid the press of the more important matters affecting the enormous revenue of Great Britain, could not procure for it the same favourable attention; and the decision, which was attended with such fatal consequences, was lightly justified, both in and out of Parliament, by sarcastic remarks upon the wretched trash under consideration, or upon the iniquities of adulteration, to such an extent, that the rank fiery Sherry, the acid north-side Madeira, the meagre Teneriffe of former days, were no longer to be found at the taverns neat as imported. Whether before the introduction of Cape wine any method existed of at once defrauding the revenue, and adding to their own profits by the mixture of ingredients more pernicious than the juice of the Colonial grape, is best known to "the trade;" but they have been sadly libelled from the days of the "limesack" of Falstaff, to the modern times of sloe-juiced Port, if the introduction of Cape wine has been the first thing that has led them into temptation.

As to the intrinsic bad quality of Cape wine, as

furnishing a reason for driving it out of consumption altogether, I must contend that it is yet premature to form a judgment. The only well-founded complaint I have ever heard of it is a certain earthy flavour, disagreeable to the English palate, in a great part of the wines (for some are entirely free from it); and in regard to the causes of this, there is such a diversity of opinions, of which a long course of practical experiments can alone determine the correctness, that the space of about a dozen years (during which short term only, has any attempt been made to discover a remedy) seems scarcely sufficient to enable us to come to a fair conclusion. That the praiseworthy efforts now making by his Excellency the Governor, the Commissioners of Inquiry, and other leading persons of the Colony, to promote the improvement both of its wines and spirits, by the establishment of a committee, consisting as well of gentlemen of the highest chemical attainments, as of those who have long been extensively engaged in the practical details of the trade, will in a reasonable time be productive of favourable results, I have no doubt. In the mean

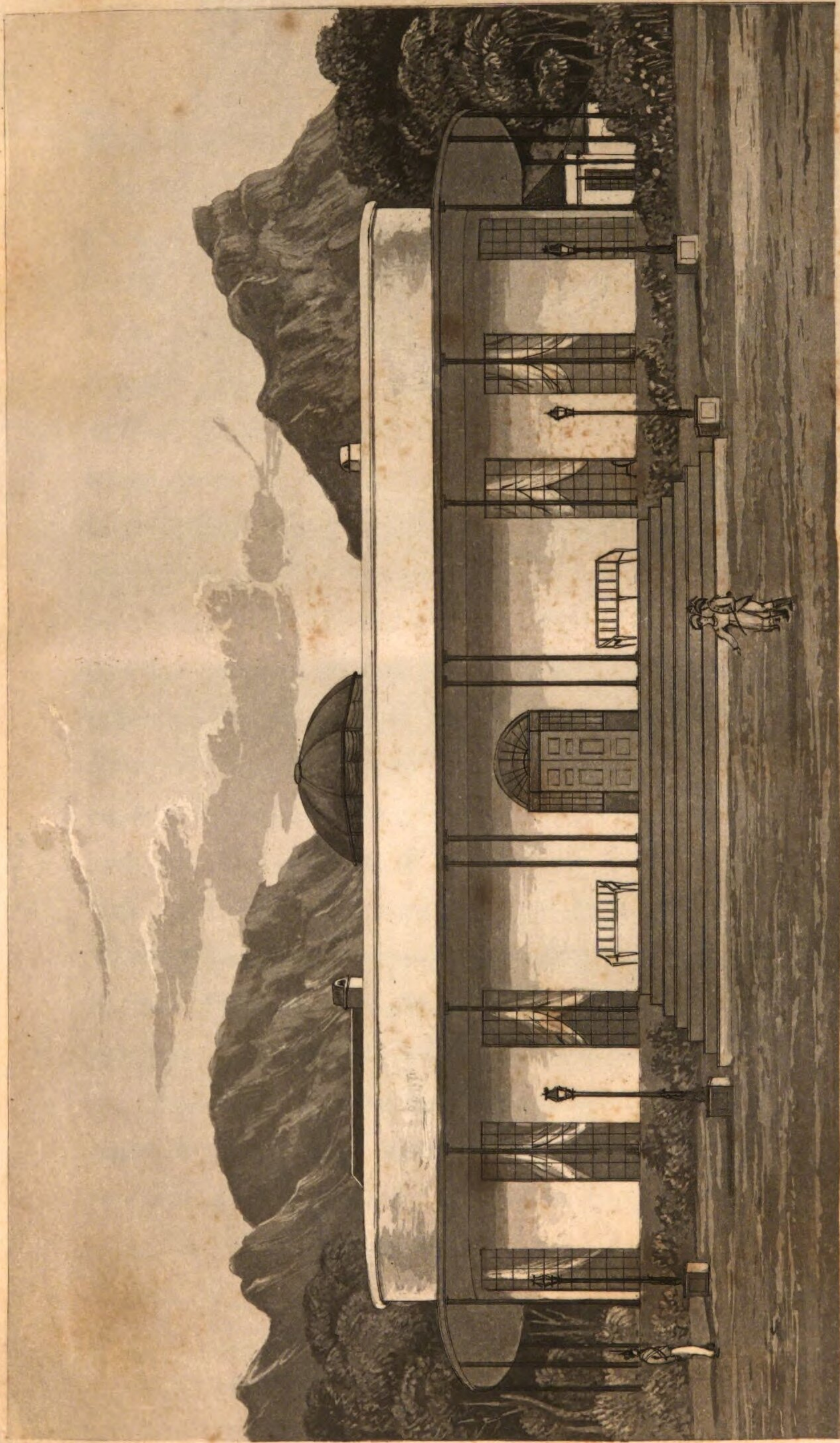
time the Cape of Good Hope has at least as good a claim to a full and adequate protection to her staple produce, as any other of our more influential colonies, whose liquid or solid productions are forced upon the home market by protecting duties. The loss of property has already been but too considerable, and still farther depreciation must take place in 1830, when an additional duty of *twenty-five per cent.* is to be levied, unless the Lords of His Majesty's Treasury can be induced to reconsider the question.



CHAPTER V.

The Corn Trade,—Currency,—and Banks.

IN the general review of the Laws of the Customs, in 1825, for which every commercial man has so much reason to feel grateful to those who undertook so laborious and invidious a task, the Cape, mainly through the exertions of its agent, T. P. Courtenay, Esq., M. P., received its due share of consideration ; and its produce, with *one* exception, obtained the protection in the home market, to which, as a British Colony, it was entitled ; but, with respect to this *one*, the apprehended op-



G. Thompson Esq. del.

NEWLANDS S.

London. Pub^d by H. Colburn, Jan. 1827.

position of another great "Interest" stood in the way of her just claims. It will be remembered that, as an encouragement to agriculture in our North American Colonies, their wheat was, in 1825, admitted to entry in England at a duty of 5s. per quarter. No reason could be adduced in support of this measure, which did not apply with equal force to the admission of grain from the Cape; while one principal argument against it,—viz. the smuggling of corn from the United States into Canada, could not possibly apply to the Cape, as there are no adjacent foreign settlements from whence it could be sent there. Still, though nothing can be more chimerical than the fear of Cape corn producing any serious effect upon the distant and extensive markets of Great Britain, the Cape was not of sufficient weight to put to hazard the intended benefit to the more important Colonies of British America, by attempting to include her produce in the same Bill. I am too sensible of the good will towards the Colony, of those with whom it would have rested to bring forward the measure, as well as of the difficulties they have to encounter in every the slightest approximation to

a more free trade in corn, to presume to censure their decision of postponing to a future and more favourable opportunity, the extension of this benefit to the Cape. The narrow escape of the Canada Corn Bill, perhaps, fully vindicates the correctness of their judgment. I only mention the circumstance to show that, powerless as this Colony is, those who are best inclined to serve her, cannot always do so in opposition to more powerful claimants.

No favourable scale of duties, however, can be productive of much benefit, till an alteration of system takes place in the Colony itself, where the trade in corn has hitherto been in a situation which must, so long as it continues, not only preclude it from becoming an exporting country, but occasionally subject it to those seasons of scarcity, sometimes approaching to famine, under one of which it is at the present moment smarting. The Burgher Senate annually procures a return of the quantity of corn on hand in the Colony; and having ascertained from the population returns the number of mouths to consume it, a proclamation is issued by the Government,

stating what quantity (if any) may be exported before the next harvest. In consequence, no one grows more than he is likely to find vent for in the home-market ; for what merchant would be at the pains of procuring a regular foreign market for an article, which, after all, he finds himself precluded from sending, except now and then in dribblets, by these paltry regulations ? The upshot of all this is, that whenever a scanty harvest occurs, instead of the corn grown for exportation being kept in the Colony,—by the high price it would naturally command in the home-market,—the vacuum is obliged to be filled up by ruinous importations of foreign corn. Were the exportation of corn at all times free, and were the English market open to it at a low duty, it would stimulate the farmer to produce, and the dealer to speculate in purchasing, a quantity which he could generally get rid of, at something like a remunerating price, for shipment to England,—should the home-market, and the nearer and more profitable export-markets of the Mauritius, St. Helena, and Brazil, be glutted by an over-supply.

As to any danger of the Colony being in want

of bread from the export of too large a quantity of its grain, I must confess myself to be very sceptical, and shall continue so till I find the Colony without wine for its home consumption, from the great encouragement that has been given to *its* exportation ;—for whatever has been advanced, and I think very rashly, as to the incapacity of the Cape for producing corn abundantly, it appears to me that there is very little more danger in the one case than in the other. At any rate, as the old system has not had the effect either of producing regular prices, or of averting occasional scarcity, it might be worth while to try the effect of a new one ; and, let what will happen, we can but resort at last, *as we are now doing*, to the harvests of Europe and India.

The final arrangement of the long agitated question of the paper currency of the Colony, is too remarkable an event to be passed over in silence, though I am far from intending to tax the patience of my readers by entering into any lengthened discussion.*

* Those who wish to see this matter minutely discussed, cannot do better than consult a pamphlet written by Lieut.

It may be desirable to inform those who are not familiar with this subject, that the colonial paper rix-dollar of the Cape, first issued by the Dutch East India Company in 1781, was declared to be equal to forty-eight full weighed pennies of Holland, (about 4s. sterling,) and which, under all its fluctuations, has generally been considered to be its *nominal* value.

At the period of the first British capture in 1795, the amount in circulation was

Rix-dollars 611,276—The balance of the issues and repayments of various sums issued for the public service.

Rix-dollars 680,000—Which has been issued as a capital to the Lombard Bank, and by it lent to the public on mortgage.

Together 1,291,276 Rix-dollars.

Whatever may have been the fitness of this sum

P. Warden Grant, of the Hon. East India Company's Revenue Survey department, published at Cape Town,---a work highly creditable to the colonial press.

for the circulation of the Colony under the Dutch Government, the sudden and large increase of the business it had to perform, in consequence of the influx of so large an additional population as the British forces, appears to have suggested to Sir James Craig the expediency of increasing the nominal amount, rather than incur the loss of issuing Treasury Bills at a discount;—and consequently a farther issue of

Rix-dollars 25,000 took place for the public service ;

8,000 for purchase of rice during a season of scarcity ;

165,000 additional capital to the Lombard Bank :—

In all, 495,000 rix-dollars issued by the British Government during their occupation of the Colony. This large increased issue, though perhaps required for a temporary purpose, appears to have exceeded the demand for a permanency, and had the effect of depreciating the currency to the extent of twenty or thirty per cent. when Lord Macartney checked any farther fall, by granting Treasury Bills at twenty per cent. premium; and when

the Colony was restored to the Dutch at the peace of Amiens in 1803, a full equivalent for such part of the currency as had been issued for the purposes of the British Government, was paid in military and naval stores.

No reduction, however, appears to have been effected by the Dutch Government; but in 1804 the whole currency was entirely recalled, and a new paper issued, which is said to have amounted, at the capture by the British forces in 1806, to about 2,000,000 rix-dollars, of which 845,000 was Bank capital. That this was a far greater nominal amount than was required for the diminished circulation of the Colony, after the retirement of the British garrison, is evident from the rate of exchange and the price of bullion during the period of the Dutch re-occupation,—bills on Holland being sometimes at a premium of 160, reducing the rix-dollar to little more than 1*s.* 6*d.* sterling, and it being no uncommon circumstance for those who wished to take away bullion from the Colony, to give ten and twelve rix-dollars for an English guinea, or two and a half and three rix-dollars for one Spanish dollar.

That a conquering government should intend to bind itself to redeem at 4s. sterling, a currency so depreciated as this, seems very improbable; and any pledge to "uphold its value" would seem to imply little more than a promise not to depreciate it by farther issues. The assertion of the rix-dollar having risen nearly to par, *upon the faith* of the British proclamation, in 1806, seems hardly well founded; the expenditure caused by the presence of so large a military and naval force as that which captured the Cape, together with the increased freedom of trade, would have been sufficient to produce this effect upon a currency whose nominal amount continued stationary; and its subsequent depreciation, without any alteration with respect to the "pledge," is a proof that its quantity, and not the public confidence, was the criterion of its value.

Between 1810 and 1814, another 1,000,000 was issued through the Lombard Bank. The evil consequences of thus adding 50 per cent. to the nominal amount in circulation, though sufficiently apparent in the following years, were materially checked by the very high value to which the wine

of the Colony was raised, by its admission at low duties into the British market, as well as by the great impulse which was given to the trade and agriculture of the Colony, by the detention of Buonaparte at Saint Helena; and it was not till his death, and the departure of the garrison from thence, and till the operation of peace-prices upon every article of European import as well as of colonial produce, was fully established, that the evil effects of this measure were entirely developed. The value of the rix-dollar gradually sunk in exchange, till in the year 1825 it appears to have reached its lowest point of depression, viz. below 1s. 5d.

On the 6th of June, 1825, an ordinance was published by the Governor in council, stating that "His Majesty's Government had determined to establish the British currency as the circulating medium of all the colonial possessions of the crown; and had farther been pleased to order and direct, that the British silver money shall be a legal tender in this Colony in discharge of all debts due to individuals and to the public, at the rate of ONE SHILLING AND SIXPENCE for each

rix-dollar, and so in proportion for any greater or less sum ;” and ordering, in consequence, that tables should be printed, stating the relative value of the paper rix-dollar, and the lesser proportions thereof, with British money ; and that all public accounts should be kept, and all contracts made for the public service, in pounds, shillings, and pence, from the 1st of January, 1826.

In the same Gazette it was announced by the Commissary, that Treasury Bills would be granted at the rate of one hundred pounds for each one hundred and three pounds, paid in at the rate of one shilling and sixpence per rix-dollar. The promulgation of these measures caused, as may be supposed, no small sensation in the Colony, both amongst those who had been speculating upon the matter as a question of political economy, and those whose speculations were of a less disinterested nature.

Entirely to justify, upon any sound *theory*, either the excessive issue of this currency, or the neglect of recalling it gradually, when its evil consequences had long been so apparent, is impossible ; the former may, perhaps, be *palliated* by

the consideration, that during the same period, the sanction of the greatest names and the highest authority was given in England to the false system of *her* depreciated currency ; and it is too much to expect that the Governors of a Colony should have been “wiser in their generation” than the ruling powers at home. The continuance of the system can only be defended by the same kind of rhetoric, that was opposed in Parliament by an honourable member (to whom, singularly enough, the Cape dissentients in 1825 have entrusted the advocacy of their cause,) to the sound logic of Mr. Huskisson, in his speech on the Bullion Report, in 1811, when he so ably illustrated those unchangeable principles of honesty and common sense, which, through evil report and good report, he has at last had the satisfaction of seeing triumphantly carried into practice,—and brought to the support of his own arguments the opinions of some of the most acute reasoners of former days. “The country,” said the honourable member, “is in such a fictitious state, as to every part of its political economy, that she cannot go on with a circulation adapted to legitimate purposes : to

talk in such a situation, of the theories of Locke and Newton, is not less absurd than the reasoning of an honourable gentleman, last night, who carried the house back to the days of *Moses*."

I shall therefore merely advert to the *practical* effects of this measure, and endeavour to show that if an immediate settlement of the currency, as a part of a general colonial measure, had become necessary, the *mode* fixed on is less objectionable, than at first it appears to be.

This arrangement has been compared to a composition of seven and sixpence in the pound with the creditors of the Government: I cannot see it in this extreme point of view. The value of the Dutch 2,000,000 rix-dollars, for so I cannot help calling them, was depreciated to a metallic value of from two shillings and three-pence to two shillings and sixpence, before the British 1,000,000 rix-dollars was issued, (certainly no good reason for making bad worse,) the premium on Treasury Bills being twenty-five per cent., reducing the *nominal* value of the rix-dollar to three shillings. These Treasury Bills were paid in the currency of Great Britain, then depreciated twenty-five per

cent. more ; a circumstance which appears to have been generally overlooked in discussing the value of the rix-dollar ; and I believe that a comparison of its price with the Spanish dollar will not show a very different result. I cannot, therefore, see why it is imperative upon the Colonial Government to pay four shillings in the *reformed* sterling coin of Great Britain, for what, when issued, was not worth half-a-crown,—and to call upon all debtors either to individuals or to itself, (and the Government, through the medium of the Lombard Bank, is creditor for nearly two-thirds of the whole currency,) immediately to pay their debts at this extravagant rate. This would be so striking a hardship, that in the quarters from whence the greatest opposition has arisen, it has been suggested, (totally abandoning the *principle*,) that an immediate calling in of the whole of the currency, at two shillings or two shillings and sixpence, would have been a very satisfactory arrangement :—doubtless it would have been so, to those long-sighted persons, who had been laying up rix-dollars in store, or selling goods at unusually long credits, at low prices, in the expectation

that the Government, whose attention, they expected, had been called to the subject by His Majesty's Commissioners, would take some such step as this before the day of payment came round. But what was to become of the unfortunate debtors upon recent contracts, forming *by far the greatest bulk of the Community*, when called on to pay one-third more than they had bargained for, without any increase in the value of the commodity they had purchased? and how would it have saved the credit of the Government with the theorist, to whom the payment of a dividend of fifteen shillings would have been as great a scandal as a payment of five shillings in the pound? In fact, no measure, the operation of which, in raising the value of the currency, would not have been as gradual as the depreciation, could have been resorted to, without causing as much mischief in the rise, as had been created in the fall.

It appears to me that the entire change in the denomination in which accounts were to be kept, and contracts made in future, afforded an opportunity for the *gradual* redemption of the rix-dollar; and I regret, as well for the sake of indivi-

duals, as of the Government, on whom so much odium has been attempted to be cast, that nothing of this kind was resorted to. The Government might have issued an entirely new British currency, either in silver or paper, upholding its value, as it now does, by the issue of Treasury Bills, at a premium to cover the expenses of transporting bullion ; all previous contracts might have been ordered to be paid in rix-dollars ; the final redemption of the rix-dollar, at four shillings, fixed for a distant period ; and a *gradually increasing* scale might have been calculated of the prices at which government would, at all times, previous to that period, either receive or issue the rix-dollar against the new currency,—taking care to calculate these rates so as to form an inducement rather for the early bringing in of the rix-dollar, than for its being kept back. I am inclined to think that this would even have been preferable to the issuing of debentures, bearing interest, in exchange for the paper currency, as has been suggested, both by the intelligent editor of “The State of the Cape in 1822,” and by a commercial gentleman in his proposals to Govern-

ment; as it would have enabled those holders of rix-dollars, who cannot, or will not understand that any thing short of receiving four silver shillings for one paper rix-dollar is a fraud upon them, to realize at some period their notion of a rix-dollar; and at the same time it would have enabled those who know the value of compound interest, to take advantage of the present payment. It is true, that by these means eighteen or twenty years might have elapsed before the rix-dollar was finally disposed of; but most of the hardships that a more sudden rise might have caused would have been avoided, and the good faith of the Government would have been esteemed by the most prejudiced as untarnished. The settlement of this question at the time it took place, prevented, I have little doubt, a still farther decline in the value of the rix-dollar, which would have been caused by the announcement *at the same time*, of the unfavourable change of duties on wines in England; and though some cases of very great individual hardship can no doubt be shown, I am satisfied on the whole, that *if an immediate settlement was necessary*, the price at which the rix-

dollar was fixed, was *practically* the least injurious to the community at large.*

In arguing this question between debtor and creditor, it is painful to me to differ from so highly respectable a body as the "Capitalists" of the Cape, or to appear as an opponent to those who enter the lists as the champions of the "widow and orphan;" but I cannot help suggesting that the hard-working man of little or no capital, who was trading upon a stock of goods, or had purchased a farm or a house upon the strength of his credit and industry, was as much entitled to protection against an increase of the value of the rix-dollar, as the Capitalist was against its decrease; and I can see no reason why the widows and orphans of the past generation should be benefited at the expense of those who are now bringing up children, and may possibly leave *them* orphans, with a property diminished by the effects of another sudden fluctuation. In what I have stated

* Since the above was written, I have seen the report of the Commissioners of Inquiry, published by order of the House of Commons, 26th May, 1826, which, I am happy to observe, coincides in a great measure with the view I have taken of the subject.

on this subject, and which I really do with the greatest diffidence, after the able way in which the question has been handled on both sides, I have at least the satisfaction of having given a disinterested opinion. From the nature of the business in which my house is engaged, we scarcely ever owe money in the Colony; and it would have been very pleasant to me to have collected many thousand pounds of book debts at so great an advance on the rix-dollar as has been talked of, if it could have been done without the ruin of our debtors; but I fear, like most other selfish schemes, it would only have proved to be another illustration of the fable of the Goose and the Golden Eggs.

Before the decision of Government became publicly known, a plan was matured in London, by a gentleman of great experience in the mercantile affairs of the Colony, for the establishment of a bank at Cape Town, one of the operations of which was to have been to facilitate a redemption of the colonial currency; but His Majesty's Government not having found this co-operation necessary to their arrangements, this part of the

plan fell to the ground, and it was afterwards confined to the formation of a corporate bank, upon the solid basis of a metallic currency. The capital was proposed to be raised in shares in England, and at the Cape; and it is to be lamented that such an accession of capital as would have flowed into the Colony by this means, has been withheld from it by the want of success in England, where the scheme was scarcely developed before those events took place which gave people full employment for their money nearer home; and at the Cape it seems not to have met with that encouragement which was anticipated by its projector, either from the Government or the public. The utility of some such establishment is, however, so apparent, that another project has emanated from an association in the Colony itself, founded upon principles equally sound, and which has the public opinion greatly in its favour. The minor details would be uninteresting to general readers, and the following abstract of the prospectus will be sufficient to explain its principles:—

“It is proposed to raise by subscription the capital sum of 50,000*l.*, in 500 shares of 100*l.* each,

and to give an additional support to the credit of the bank, by unexceptionable security in the title-deeds or mortgages on estates, or fixed property, to the full amount of each and every share,—such securities to be deposited, at the time of payment of the first instalment, in the custody of trustees to be elected by the proprietors, whereby every share will be composed of 100*l.* in money, and the like amount in landed security ;”—“ no person to hold more than twenty shares of the stock. The bank is not to engage in any kind of trade, or be connected in any kind of agency for the buying and selling of merchandize, or fixed or moveable property ; but its business is to be confined to the discounting, at the discretion of the Board of Directors, if approved, promissory notes and acceptances at a date not exceeding three months ;

“ The discounting the acceptances of the Ven-
due department ;

“ The giving credit on cash accounts, under unexceptionable security, for a period not exceeding three months, on the Scotch banking principle ; and—

“ The issuing and circulating notes to a prescribed and limited amount, payable on demand in the legal currency of the Colony.

“ The bank paper issues shall not exceed the sum of 100,000*l.* sterling; or the amount of the capital and security to be issued in notes of not less than one pound for the present, payable on demand in the legal currency of the Colony.

“ As security to the public, there will exist at all times, *besides the responsibility of the proprietors,*

“ The capital stock of 50,000*l.*;

“ The securities in the custody of trustees, equivalent to 50,000*l.*; and further,

“ The promissory notes, vendue acceptances, and other available securities and choses in action, received in lieu of the paper issues, constituting a value which, under a direction subject to the half-yearly inspection of every proprietor, must be considered ample and undeniable security.”

Whether the capital required can be conveniently abstracted from other profitable employment of stock by the monied inhabitants, and whether in a country where so great a proportion of the

real property is already under mortgage to the Government, landed security can readily be found in the same hands to give the required additional security, seem to be the only reasons why its success need be doubted; and it is satisfactory to know that half the sum has already been subscribed by substantial people.

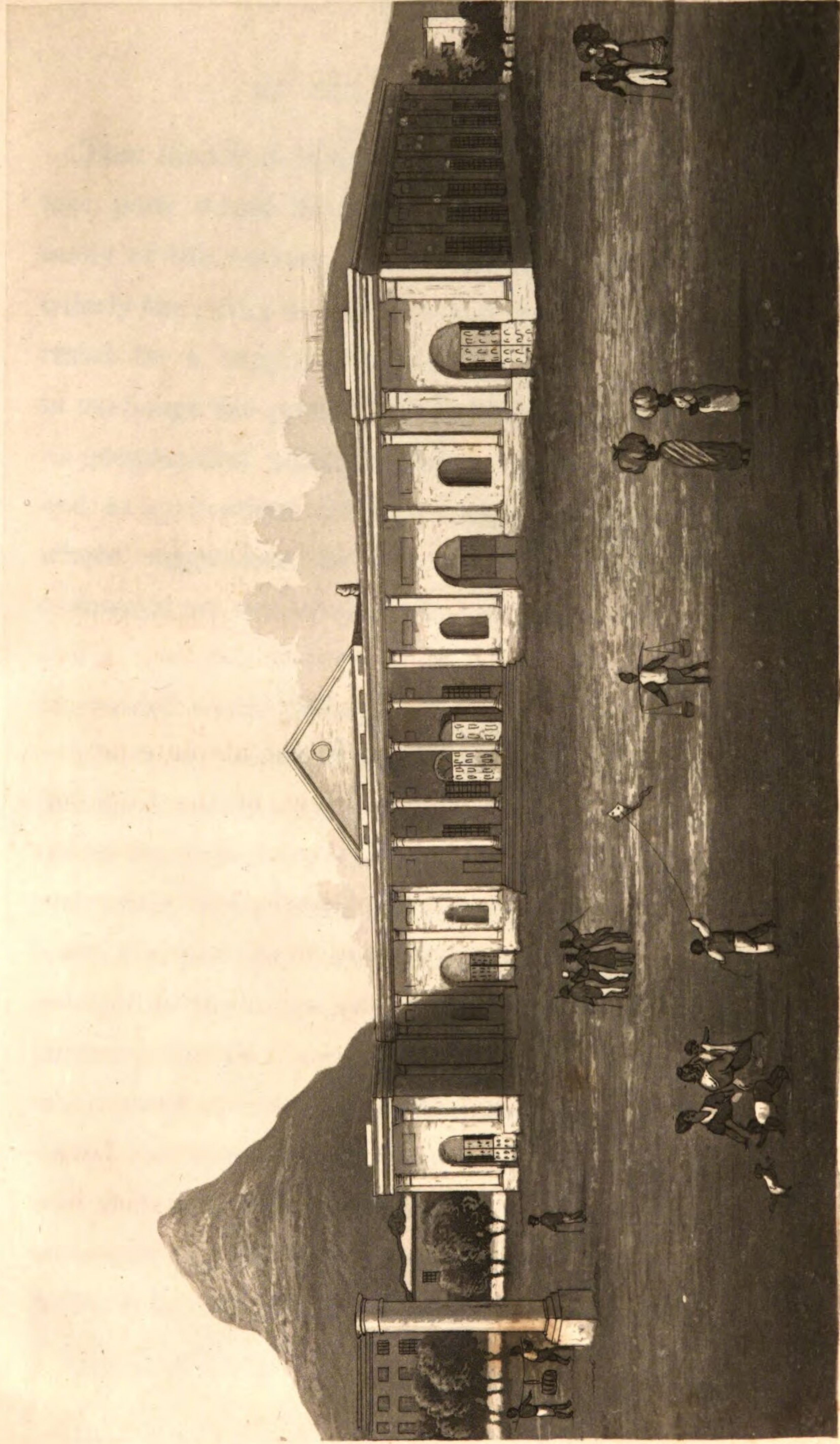
Independent of the benefits which would be derived by the owners of moderate sums of money, who would have an opportunity which they now want, of *securely* placing out their money at interest, where they could receive it back at pleasure, and of the facilities offered to the trading part of the community by cash accounts, an establishment of this kind would contribute more than any thing else to a regularity in the payment of bills and notes of hand, the non-payment of which, when passing through the hands of a board of directors, would be felt by a tradesman as a dishonour, and if he had an account with the bank, as destructive to his credit,—which, at present, is looked upon as no more compromised by a *fauv-pas* of this kind, than by the temporary delay of the payment of an open or unadjusted account.

We need not, I believe, in *any* Colony look for that high tone of commercial feeling for which London and our large commercial cities are celebrated, but any approximation to it is highly to be desired.

CHAPTER VI.

Commercial Importance of the Colony.—Natural Advantages and Obstructions.—Wine Districts.—Corn Districts.—Native Free Labourers.—Exportable Produce.—Whale and Seal Fisheries.—Trade with the Caffer Tribes.—Notices respecting Raw Silk, Salted Provisions, &c. &c.

THE importance, and even the absolute necessity, in a military point of view, of the Cape of Good Hope being held by Great Britain as an outwork of her Eastern possessions, has been so clearly pointed out by a gentleman eminently qualified to appreciate its value, as well as to impress its importance on others, that I should deem it impertinent to add any thing to what the reader will find in Mr. Barrow's standard work. I will therefore proceed to consider its commercial importance, which I think has been much underrated.



C. Thompson Esq. del.

COMMERCIAL EXCHANGE.

London, Pub.^d by H. Colburn, Jan^y 1827.

That the Cape, if enjoying all the benefits of a free port, would become an emporium to which many of the nations to the westward, and particularly the rising states of South America, would resort for a supply of eastern produce, bringing in exchange the productions of their own country, its geographical position renders highly probable; and as applications are now making in a quarter where suggestions for the extension of British commerce are seldom made in vain, there is little doubt that this important privilege will ere long be granted to the Colony.

Times of profound peace, however, and that improved rapidity of commercial communication which has brought distant nations so much nearer each other, and enabled them to carry on a direct trade, are, perhaps, not very favourable to an early increase of the commerce of the Cape as an emporium; and the more so, as it would require a much larger portion of British capital to be diverted into that channel, than is likely to find its way there. I shall, therefore, rather consider the capabilities of the Colony for carrying on a direct trade with the mother country, and with the

other markets to which its commerce is opened,—and its fitness for a station of refreshment for ships trading to and from the East Indies, and for vessels engaged in the southern fishery, and in the distant voyages to the colonies of New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land.

The principal circumstances which *appear* to militate against the agriculture and commerce of the Cape, are the large quantity of sterile, uncultivated land within its boundaries, and the want of navigable rivers for the conveyance of its produce to the ports of shipment, as well as of secure harbours for the shelter of the shipping which resort there. Nature, however, provident in all her works, has not failed to find a means of transport for the commodities of most of those districts which she has not doomed to irreclaimable barrenness, or to a pastoral state; and the finest parts, both of the Colony, and of those countries which will, probably, in the progress of civilization, be added to it, lie so contiguous to a sea-coast of six or seven hundred miles in length, on which a vessel scarcely ever finds herself on a lee-shore, as greatly to supply the want of inland naviga-

tion ; while the extreme cheapness of land-carriage, and the general excellence of the roads in the Colony, render the conveyance of produce, from the interior to the coast, much less expensive than would be imagined at first sight.

If the reader will cast his eye over the map, he will perceive that within a line drawn from the junction of the Cradock and Gariep rivers southward nearly to the Sneeuwberg, and from thence following the line of the Nieuwveld mountains to the westward and north-west, as far as Hantam, and from thence to the sea, following which to the mouth of the Gariep, and from thence along its course eastward, which seems to form the natural northern boundary of the Colony, — nearly the whole of that enormous tract is totally unfit for the subsistence of any considerable population. The great inclined plain, leading from the Nieuwveld to the Gariep river, is subject to almost continual drought ; and the mountain ranges, and their immediate vicinity, though admirably adapted for the pasturage of cattle, are yet quite unfitted for the subsistence of any but a pastoral and partly wandering race. In addition to which,

the hungry lands of the Bokkeveld, Roggeveld, and Great Karroo, comprehend a large territory not included within this line. No produce is, therefore, likely to come from these districts, except such as possesses, within itself, the power of locomotion.

The principal wine districts, the produce of which, notwithstanding all that has been said against it, will still, I trust, maintain its rank as the staple commodity of the Colony, lie within a distance of thirty to forty miles from Cape Town; viz. in the Stellenbosch district, along the skirts of the chain of Hottentots' Holland Mountains,—the wine farms beginning at Hottentots Holland, and continuing through Stellenbosch, Banghoek, Franschehoek, Drackenstein, and the Paarl, to Waggon-maker's Valley. And though the roads are bad, lying chiefly through a deep sand, and require eighteen oxen to convey two leaguers, of 152 gallons each, occupying two or three days to perform the journey, yet, considering the cheap rate of carriage in that country, they are still sufficiently near to Cape Town to establish that beyond competition as the wine port of the Colony.

The other parts that produce the wine, are the skirts of Table Mountain, Constantia, and its neighbourhood, Houts' Bay, and Tiger Berg. These latter places chiefly produce the favourite wines, such as Hock and sweet Muscadels, while the more distant farms above-mentioned, produce the common wine, denominated Cape Madeira and Pontac. The extension of this species of cultivation to other districts of the Colony, after the late severe check upon its prosperity, is, I think, for the present at least very doubtful.

The principal corn districts are, the Blue-Berg, Koeberg, Zwartland, and Twenty-four Rivers, all in the Cape district; the produce of which comes chiefly by land to Cape Town, though capable of partial transport by sea, at least from the districts in the neighbourhood of St. Helena Bay. These are at present the principal granaries of the Colony. But the greater part of the districts of George and Swellendam are equally capable of producing corn abundantly: the soil is well fitted for it, and the rains which fall in the season of its growth along the whole eastern coast of the Colony, do not render irrigation so indispensable in

the process of agriculture, as it is to the northward of the chain of mountains which intercept the refreshing showers brought by the south-east wind.

For the ready conveyance of grain to a distant market, the Breede River, which falls into the sea at Port Beaufort, and is navigable for vessels of two hundred tons, furnishes abundant means as far as respects the district of Swellendam ; while Mossel Bay is a sufficiently secure place for shipping the produce of such parts of George as are capable of growing corn.

Nearly the whole of the district of Uitenhage is also well suited for the successful cultivation of corn : and the Zwartkops River, which falls into Algoa Bay, furnishes a means of inland water-carriage for nearly fifteen miles from its mouth. The district of Albany, though under present circumstances so much better adapted for grazing, could yet, were the rust extirpated, and external demand to arise, undoubtedly furnish a very considerable surplus quantity of grain. And the country along the coast between the Fish River and Keiskamma, as far as I can judge from per-

sonal inspection, as well as from the reports of many intelligent persons who have visited it, is equally well, or better adapted for the purposes of agriculture. There are, therefore, no impediments that I am aware of, except the restrictions on the corn trade, already alluded to, and the want of a labouring population to cultivate the ground, which prevent the Cape from producing corn in superabundance. How the latter impediment is to be speedily got over in the Dutch districts, I do not see very plainly. The settlement of British emigrants there by Government, is not practicable to any considerable extent ; because the whole country, except some small tracts already noticed, is in the possession of the boors ; and the increase of the population, unless a large spontaneous influx should take place from Britain, must be very gradual. The readiest means which occurs to me for a farther supply of labour, (provided there be no prospect of obtaining it from Europe,) is the receiving into these districts as indentured servants or apprentices, refugees from the Bechuana and Caffer tribes. Above a thousand fugitives from different nations have already been received into

the districts of Somerset, Graaff-Reinet, and Albany; and pressed as the border tribes now appear to be by the weight of those behind them, there will perhaps eventually be no alternative, but either their entire destruction between the British force on the frontier, and the savage invaders behind, or allowing them to be peaceably scattered through the Colony on some plan that will secure at once their general usefulness and their good treatment. From whatever cause it arises, whether from the redundancy of the population, in consequence of the stoppage of the slave trade on the north-east coast, or from the conquering chiefs of that quarter driving the weaker tribes to the south-west, certain it is, that the southern tribes are pressed upon from the north by a weight which they cannot withstand; and as such events as the irruption of the Mantatees may again, ere long, not improbably recur, it is desirable, if possible, to turn this evil to some good account. The details of such a measure may be safely left to the consideration of the Colonial Government, but that humanity dictates, in the event contemplated, some steps to be taken to prevent

the extermination of the tribes on the border by military execution or savage massacre, is sufficiently apparent.

Every reasonable expectation may be formed, that the population so introduced will be found superior to a *slave* population. At least this has hitherto been the case with the prize apprentices, who not only look upon themselves as a caste superior to the slaves, but are so esteemed by those in whose service they are. It is true, they are generally settled in and about Cape Town, and it is probable that the dispersion of the native refugees at a distance from the check, both of authority and public opinion, would operate unfavourably upon the conduct of the *master*, upon which, in most situations of society, either amongst slaves or freemen, much of the good or evil conduct of servants depends. But even the obstinacy objected against the Dutch boer, would not be entirely proof against the gradual amelioration which is taking place in society; and I am inclined to think, that no evils could arise which bear any comparison to the wretched fate these

poor creatures are probably doomed to, unless something is done for their relief.

The importation of Chinese settlers has been advised, and no doubt these industrious people would be in many situations a great acquisition ; but it seems very doubtful, whether they could be induced to serve as agricultural labourers to the boors. I have always understood that they have thriven best on allotments of land tilled for their own emolument ; and here the same impediments present themselves, as with regard to English settlers ; viz. the best lands are already allotted. As artificers, mechanics, and domestic servants, they would be highly useful in Cape Town, and the smaller towns. But I much doubt whether any emigration, conducted on a large scale, would not fail, from the same causes that were fatal to an experiment of the same kind at Trinidad.

A country so prolific in flocks and herds as the Cape, cannot but furnish a large supply of hides and skins ; and these have accordingly, of late years, been a considerable article of export to Great Britain. The quality of the hides is in fair estimation, and the sheep and goat skins fur-

nish a highly valuable material to the leather-dresser. This, from the nature of things, must be an increasing article of export, and capable of extension, by barter with the native tribes, till a higher state of civilization induces home manufacture to a greater extent than is now carried on. But in the article of wool the Cape is as yet far behind our Australian Colonies. The Cape sheep, it is well known, is covered rather with hair than wool; but its adaptation for its native climate, and the use made of the fat of its tail, render the Dutch farmers, who at best are not very fond of innovations, averse from changing this breed for one possessing the valuable property which the native sheep wants. Consequently, the experiments in introducing the Merino breed have chiefly been confined to the Government farms and a few places in their vicinity, where, though neither pains nor expense have been spared, the success has been far from encouraging. The wool appears to have degenerated, and from the nature of the country in which the experiments have been tried, it has been found so much clogged with sand, and with small decayed vegetable sub-

stances, as greatly to deteriorate its value in manufacture. This I am fully aware of, having sent home some wool, esteemed of good quality, which lost above half the weight in washing, and produced a cloth of about twelve shillings per yard in value, which I sold at the Cape, and the result paid me little more than five per cent. on the capital. Whether a greater share of success will attend the exertions which Captain Stockenstrom, the Landdrost of Graaff-Reinet, is making, yet remains to be seen. In Albany there are some Merino sheep; I believe the flock of Major Pigot is the most extensive, and I understand promises to succeed very well. I am, therefore, not without great hope, that, ere long, wool will furnish a more important article of export from the Colony than it has yet done; and I think the sheep in the eastern provinces will not be so much annoyed by the sand as in the Cape district.*

* Since the above was written, I have learned that these favourable anticipations are likely to be realized. Some of the wool sent home from the eastern districts, (which, with the Sneeuwberg and Nieuwveld, are the best sheep-walks of the Colony,) promises to be of a better quality than any hitherto raised near the Cape, and holds out the cheering prospect of this important produce becoming, ere long, one of the staple exports of the interior.

Dried fruits are cured at the Cape in some perfection ; and raisins, which form so valuable an article of commerce from the Mediterranean, ought, and probably will, under the protecting duty they enjoy, form a larger article of export to England than they have yet done. These, and some other fruits, have been sent in considerable quantities to St. Helena, the Mauritius, New South Wales, and Van Diemen's Land, and in these channels the trade in them will probably increase ; large quantities of them are also sold to the Indiamen as sea-stores. The extreme richness of the grapes, and probably some want of skill in the preparation, greatly limit their consumption as dessert fruit in England ; but for the purposes of cookery none better can be found. Were the proper mode of curing raisins better understood at the Cape, there can be no doubt of success in this branch of commerce,—for whatever may be said of its wines, the grapes of the Colony are of the finest quality.

Argol, the quality of which has improved of late years, and the quantity of which might probably be a good deal increased, is another second-

any article of export. Aloes are exported in large quantities. This drug is capable of production to a much larger extent than there can be any demand for, till some other use than a medicine for cattle be discovered for it. The plant grows wild, and is not, like the finer aloe of the West Indies, an object of cultivation. Its manufacture is so simple that any sudden demand is easily supplied.

These are the principal products of colonial industry which have hitherto been considered fit articles of export to England ; and certainly it does not appear to furnish such a list as might be expected from its situation and climate. It may be questioned, however, whether it would conduce to the prosperity of the Cape, to divert from its natural channels that labour and capital which have proved beneficial, for the sake of producing a variety of articles, which, though suited to the *climate* of the Colony, are yet unfitted to its other circumstances.

The tea of China, the coffee of Java, the cotton of India, the tobacco of America, together with a long list of the productions of the southern countries of Europe, might all, it is believed, be suc-

cessfully cultivated in different parts of the Colony. But it is not from these sources that the early prosperity of the Colony must arise, any more than from the iron, the copper, and other minerals which it is known to possess.* No one can be more averse than I am from throwing a damp upon the enterprising spirit, without which, no country can attain prosperity ; but I am of opinion, that the articles I have just enumerated, are rather to be expected from the vigour of a maturer age, than from the infancy of the Colony. It may seem strange to use this term after a colonization of nearly two hundred years ; but when it is considered, that the settlement is but just emancipated

* Copper is known to exist in abundance in Little and Great Namaqualand. According to the reports of the missionaries, native iron is to be found in the same quarter in considerable blocks, a circumstance I had but little faith in until I discovered that it was also found in that state in Siberia and Senegal. The mineral most likely to be first in request is that well known to exist on the Van Staade's River, between the Camtoos River and Algoa Bay,—being a rich vein of silver and lead. If it be true, as currently reported, that coal has been found on the Kromme River, not far west from Van Staade's River, it is possible, that ere long, some attempt may be made to work it. The acquisition of coal mines would, indeed, be invaluable to South Africa ; they would furnish the means of smelting her ores, and supplying her steamers.

from the leading-strings of commercial monopoly, it will not appear to be ill applied.

There is another species of cultivation, and that a valuable one, which has been suggested by the editor of the "State of the Cape in 1822," of the favourable result of which I entertain no doubt,—I mean that of the silkworm ; and I am happy in the prospect that an attempt is now likely to be made, under circumstances which render its success highly probable. The white mulberry attains to the highest degree of perfection ; the climate is precisely suitable to the worm, and a population well adapted for the tendance of these insects, is to be found in the Hottentots. It requires, in fact, nothing but a very few persons skilled in the art of winding the silk from the cocoons, to instruct others, and a proper set of machinery for the purpose, to insure the most perfect success. It fortunately demands no such very large capital to start upon, as might deter individuals from embarking in it, if a public company formed expressly for such purposes should decline the undertaking.

The whale fisheries on the coast, which have

hitherto furnished an export to England, I am sorry to say, have become less productive in each succeeding year; and this trade, unless it is capable of being conducted on very different principles than the mere taking of the whales that come into the bays, is soon likely to be of little value to the Colony. At present, I think that agriculture forms a more profitable investment for the capital of the resident at the Cape; and the merchants generally connected with England, have their means otherwise engaged. South Sea whaling expeditions are carried on upon those principles of partnership between the owners and the crew, that they can only be settled on the ship's return *home*; and an absence of two or three years from England is quite as long as a seaman would generally be disposed to bind himself to. Whenever there is surplus capital among the Cape residents, this may be undertaken, I think, with great advantage, but not till then.

The seals which are caught on this coast afford skins of but indifferent quality, and these are likely rather to diminish than increase in quantity. The fish that swarm off the banks of the Cape,

are entirely neglected as an article of foreign trade, though there is abundance of salt to cure them. Perhaps the most profitable and extensive markets for this kind of produce are to be found too near to the fisheries of Europe and of North America, to admit of a successful competition.

To the export of articles to England, which I have already mentioned as the produce of the Colony itself, may be added the ivory, gum, and ostrich feathers, which form a lucrative branch of commerce between the settlers and the border tribes ; being chiefly obtained in barter for beads, buttons, and articles of small comparative value. This trade will probably be found susceptible of considerable increase, both in the quantity and the variety of the products, when a more unreserved intercourse takes place between the traders and the natives. It was formerly restricted by law to an annual fair at Fort Willshire, from a laudable desire to afford protection to those employed in the trade ; and though this is now extended to a market twice a week at the same place, yet the thirst of gain causes a continued violation of the rules laid down by government, and neither the

preventive service of the troops on the border, nor the dread of ill treatment from the natives, deter some adventurers from entering the forbidden country in the prosecution of so profitable a trade. Limited as the intercourse is, it must still, ere long, have some effect in civilizing these tribes; and they have already property of sufficient value in their herds of cattle, added to the products I have mentioned, and to others that may yet be discovered amongst them, to give an equivalent for such articles as new wants may render desirable to them.

The cheapness of the cattle purchased from such neighbours as these, as well as the increase of their own flocks and herds in a country so well adapted to pasture, may prove to the inhabitants of Albany the source of a lucrative trade in the curing of salt provisions, which has been begun with some prospect of success, both with respect to its cheapness and good quality. I can speak of this from experience, having supplied some homeward-bound Indiamen with beef cured at Mr. Nourse's establishment, at the Kowie, which was so well approved that the com-

manders regretted that they had not taken more of it. The appearance was not so prepossessing as that of Irish beef, but its quality was equally good. The country possesses every natural advantage for this trade, and I have no doubt of seeing it become an important article, not only for supplies to the shipping in the India trade, but also as an export to foreign countries. Not only salted provisions, but salt itself may become a considerable article of trade, whenever labour can be applied to the numerous salt-pans along the coast. The salt lakes of the interior are too far distant from the sea to furnish the article for export.

Timber is sufficiently abundant in the forests of the Knysna and Plettenberg's Bay to supply the wants of the Colony ; but neither is its quality sufficiently good, nor the price of the labour employed in procuring it low enough, to render it an article of export ; and indeed, until capital be found for the erection of saw-mills on the Knysna, deals from Europe will even still be imported with advantage, the charges of freight, &c. being more than counterbalanced by the expense of labour

required to reduce the produce of the forests into this shape.

With the exception of these districts, however, the Colony is any thing but well wooded ; and on the sea-coast, particularly, great advantage might, I think, be derived from plantations of the pine, which have been so useful in Portugal. The bark of the mimosa is well adapted for the use of the tanner, and may one day become an article of export from Albany and Cafferland, as well as from the districts beyond the north-west boundaries of the Colony.

The improved breed of Cape horses, for which the Colony is without doubt greatly indebted to the patronage of his Excellency the present Governor, has proved so considerable a source of profit to the farmers, as to have induced them to take great pains in the breeding of horses, and they now furnish a considerable article of export, —the finest to India, sometime bringing prices of two to three hundred guineas, and the less valuable ones to the Isle of France, (to which twenty or thirty are occasionally exported in one vessel,) from 15*l.* to 50*l.* ;—nor is this a branch of trade

at all likely to decline, the number of valuable horses continually increasing.

The Mauritius and St. Helena are certain and increasing markets for almost every species of the agricultural produce of the Cape, and to her they must continue indebted for those useful supplies of corn, wine and oil, sheep and cattle, butter, soap, forage, and fruits, which the barrenness and limited extent of the one, and the sugar cultivation of the other, preclude them from furnishing themselves. The sugar and coffee of the Brazils are occasionally exchanged for the corn and wine of the Colony:—of the latter some cargoes have also been advantageously disposed of in Van Diemen's Land and New South Wales; and, notwithstanding the efforts to produce wine in the latter Colony, I think the Cape will be able for a long while hence to supply it at a cheaper rate than it can be grown there.



G. Thompson Esq. del.

TABLE BAY IN A GALE.

London, Pub.^d by H. Colburn, Jan. 1827.



CHAPTER VII.

Inland Carriage.—Proposed Introduction of Camels.—Other Improvements suggested.—Table Bay.—Notices of other Bays and Harbours on the West and South Coasts.—Concluding Remarks.

HAVING shown what the Colony is capable of producing, I will next consider the alleged difficulty of conveying this produce to a distant mar-

ket. And first it is to be remarked, that, with the exception of what may be called the pastoral country, no part of the Colony extends to a much greater distance than one hundred and fifty miles from the coast,—the sea-beach forming, as it were, the outer edge of a broad semicircular belt, extending nearly a thousand miles round the Colony, which, by this means, enjoys in some measure the advantages of an insular situation. Land-carriage across this country, which would be so formidable an obstacle in many parts of the world, is here, from the general excellence of the roads, and the ease with which fodder is obtained for the draught cattle, by no means so expensive as to form any serious charge upon the produce brought to market, notwithstanding that it requires from twenty to thirty oxen, divided into two teams or spans, for a weight of two thousand pounds. In one of those long journeys, a boor travels with his whole family and caravan, at a very small expense, taking dried meat with him; and the cattle are grazed on the outspann places set apart for public use. It has often been a subject of discussion, whether it would not be better to use the draught

cattle as pack-oxen, after the manner of the Aborigines, instead of employing waggons,—and I think it would certainly be cheaper. But the waggon is so congenial to the habits of the Dutch boor, that it must be some strong inducement indeed, that would cause him to adopt any other mode of carriage than this, which is, as it were, a travelling house to him.

It is much to be regretted that that useful animal the camel has never been introduced into Southern Africa. Although the roads are not in every quarter so well calculated for its feet as the sands of Arabia, yet in many parts, particularly in the Cape and Stellenbosch districts, they are equally so, and I presume he might cross the Karroos without difficulty. Albany, Cafferland, and the Bechuana country might be traversed with ease,—these countries being of a soft nature generally; and indeed I am not aware that he is incapable of standing even a much harder road than most parts of the Colony. In the neighbourhood of Muscat and Arabia Petræa, camels are employed constantly in traversing rough and stony regions. If we look at the small quantity of nou-

ishment required by the camel, and the heavy load he carries, it is at once obvious what an advantage his introduction into South Africa would prove. On good authority, I understand his usual burthen is about 750lbs. His food is every thing almost you choose to give him ; straw, brambles, pounded dates, beans, barley, &c. With a single pound of food, and as much water, in a day, he will travel for weeks together. And I cannot but join in the wish expressed by the Editor of the "State of the Cape in 1822," whose notes form so valuable a part of that work, that Government would undertake the introduction of this animal, as the first cost is too great, and the profit to be obtained too remote, to incline private individuals to engage in a speculation of this nature.

Canals and rail-roads are entirely out of the question ; but few countries possess such excellent natural roads, as I have already observed, and with the exception of a few mountain passes and deep rivers, the Colony can be traversed with the greatest ease from one end to the other. All that can be done at present is to subdue, as far as is practicable, the natural difficulties. Government

have lately done much in this way, and the Franschehoek Pass will stand as a monument of fame of the planners of the excellent road over it.

The next object worthy of a similar attention is the Hottentots' Holland Kloof, which might, at a third of the expense, be rendered easy to cross, to the incalculable advantage of the districts of Swellendam and George, particularly if the Howhoek Pass is also improved.

It is more difficult to render the rivers passable than the mountains. At one season of the year, when the rains set in, and when the dry beds of summer are filled with furious currents that carry all before them, waggons have been known to lie six weeks before one of these winter torrents. *Ponts*, or floating bridges, are used with great success on the Berg and Breede Rivers, and might in a few other instances. Perhaps the ingenious rope-bridge of Mr. Shakespeare might answer in some places here, as well as over the torrents of India. At any rate, some contrivance ought to be resorted to for the conveyance of the mails, which is becoming daily of more vital importance to the Colony.

I shall now endeavour to point out the various places of embarkation to which produce may be brought for transport by sea; and at the same time notice such improvements as they are susceptible of, either as inlets for the coasting trade, or as harbours on a large scale. Bad as is the reputation of South African rivers, I apprehend that many of them may yet be rendered available for commerce, whenever the increasing wealth and population of the Colony shall render it practicable to bestow some expense upon their improvement; and in this light they have been viewed by many eminent nautical men on this station.

The plan suggested by the late Commodore Nourse, for clearing the bar of the Kowie, is applicable to many other rivers on the east coast;*

* Extract from a Report by Commodore Nourse to His Excellency the Governor, dated at the Kowie, Oct. 17, 1823.

“ From the bar, the course of the channel is tortuous for some distance, until it falls into the smoother uninterrupted course of the river, up which I proceeded seven miles; and there can scarcely be less than four fathoms so far as sixteen miles up, without a bank or rock to intercept the progress. Both sides are thickly wooded close to the water's edge.

“ To remove the obstacles, in some measure, at the entrance, and the winding, and consequent lodgement and

and the state of the two harbours, Saldanha Bay on the west, and the Knysna on the east coast,

shifting of sand, I think it would be worth the experiment to make the course straight from the bar to the straighter and deeper part of the river, that the tide might have a straight influx and reflux; which, with the freshets occasionally, and the receding tide, would carry all the loose sand into the sea, which is now lodged near its mouth.

“ The flood tide would certainly bring a quantity of that matter in again; but instead of being deposited, as it is now, just within its entrance, it would be carried higher up and be dispersed over the deeper parts of the river. The straight course given within its entrance, would confine the passage over the bar to one particular spot, and consequently deepen it, whereas it is now constantly shifting several points.

“ Should this be found to answer, I would propose such a vessel, worked by steam, as is used generally in harbours in our seaports, to prevent them from filling up,—which is found to be often the case. This vessel would be employed when the bar is perfectly smooth, (which I am informed is sometimes the case for several days together,) in deepening and widening the bar: and, at such times as the surf on the bar may prevent working upon it, the vessel could be employed within, in clearing and deepening the channel to the deeper part of the river.

“ There would be little more than the first expense of such a vessel, as the woods which come down all the way up the river to the water side, would furnish fuel enough for all purposes for centuries to come. The vessel might be built on the banks, at the mouth of the river, and the machinery sent from England.

“ Regarding the labour for making a straight course from

whose bold bluff cliffs, and narrow entrances, present the same natural obstacles to the accumulation of sand at their mouths as are proposed to be artificially erected at the Kowie, is a tolerably strong proof of the good effects that would result from the adoption of some such plan.

I am strengthened in my opinions on this head, by my friend Captain Owen, commanding the squadron recently employed on the extensive survey of the African coast, who has pointed out to me that similar inconveniences in some of the har-

the bar to the deeper part of the river, perhaps not more than forty roods of sand would have to be cut through, and some stakes laid down, with an embankment which the sand would soon form against it, to keep the river in a straight line to the necessary distance. This labour, it appears to me, were it necessary, might be had at little or no expense. I will suppose so many convicts on their way to Botany Bay, as might be thought necessary, landed at Kowie, where they could be hutted and fed at a trifling expense, until the work were finished, when they might be again embarked, and proceed to their ultimate destination."

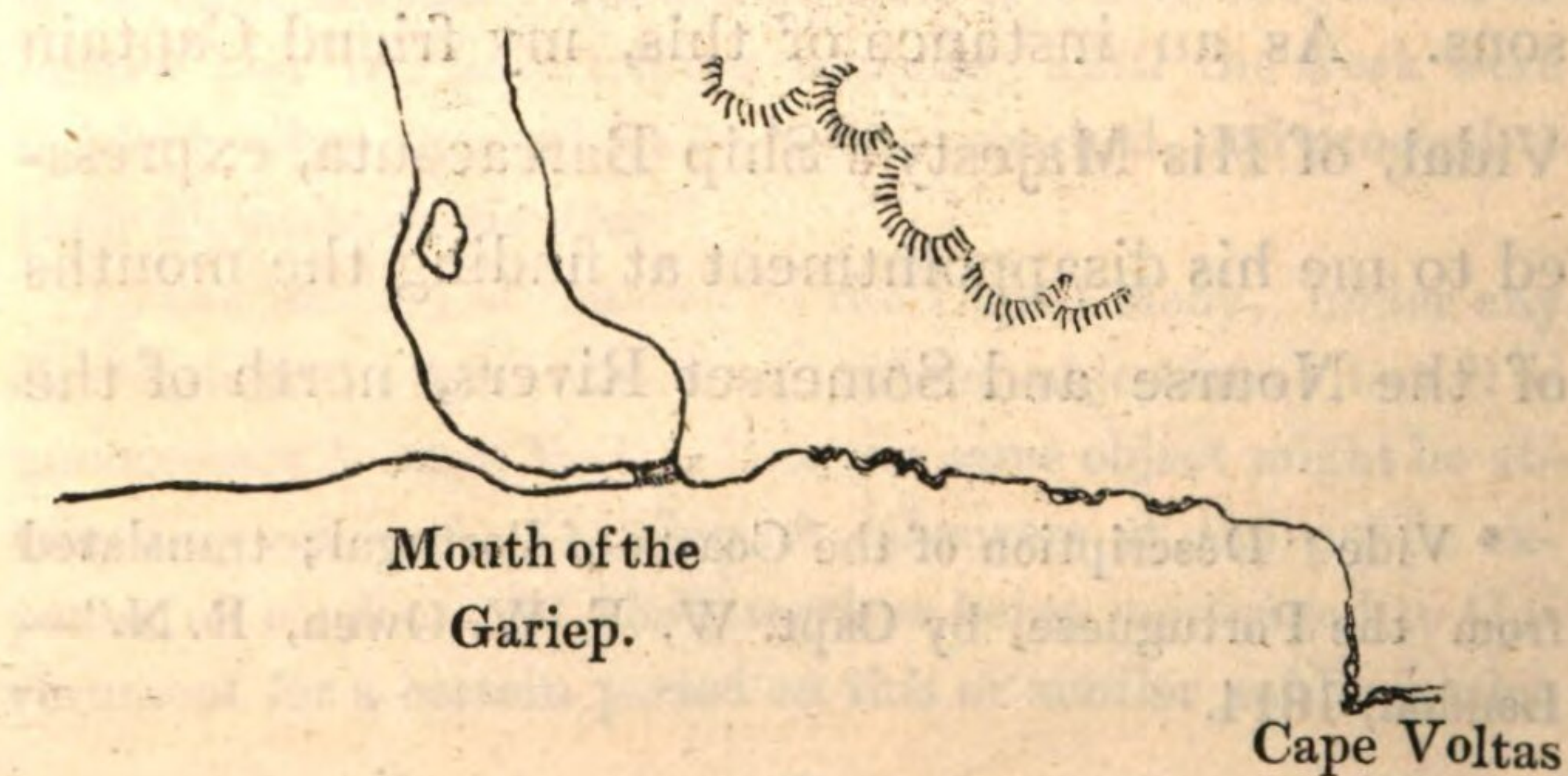
To the landing of convicts in the Cape Colony, under any circumstances, there are most serious objections; but it is unnecessary to urge them, since the same object might be attained by sending out emigrant labourers at the public expense, on condition of their services being mortgaged to Government for a certain period on this or similar public works.

bours on the coast of Portugal have been obviated by similar methods.*

At the seasons when a river of the west coast has dwindled into insignificance, the sea, from the prevalence of the north-west monsoon, throws up a continual accumulation of sand, which it is no longer able to wash out, and a bar thus becomes formed at its entrance, leaving only a narrow channel for the diminished stream to pass through. At the period when the north-west monsoon has ceased to blow, the river, swelled into a torrent, bursts through the barrier, which it again washes into the sea, leaving the entrance clear till a repetition of the same causes produces the same effects. From this circumstance may arise the discrepancy of accounts as to the entrances of unfrequented rivers when surveyed at different seasons. As an instance of this, my friend Captain Vidal, of His Majesty's Ship *Barracouta*, expressed to me his disappointment at finding the mouths of the Nourse and Somerset Rivers, north of the

* Vide "Description of the Coasts of Portugal; translated from the Portuguese, by Capt. W. F. W. Owen, R. N."—London, 1814.

Gariep, completely choked with sand banks, though Capt. Chapman, of the *Espiègle*, had entered both of them at a different season of the year. Were a barrier raised sufficiently strong to resist the weight of the winter floods, and confining the outlet of the water to such a space as the summer stream could keep clear of sand, the entrance would always be navigable. The annexed sketch of the mouth of the Gariep, or Orange River, taken during the recent survey, will answer as a general description of this kind of river. It may, however, be remarked, that the Gariep being encumbered at its entrance with rocks, (as seen by the *Espiègle* at a different season,) and, moreover, on too large a scale to attempt any plan for narrowing its channel, is totally prevented from ever becoming navigable.



Those connected with the interests of Kamiesberg, the extreme point of civilization of the Colony to the north, have long wished for a harbour, from which they might send their surplus produce to the Cape, and have at last, as I am informed, succeeded in finding a bay that is likely to answer the purpose, viz.,—at the mouth of what is laid down in the map as Zwartlintjes River, opposite to the Kamiesberg. An enterprising individual connected with the coasting trade on the west coast of the Colony has it in contemplation to try the experiment immediately.

From the Zwartlintjes River to the Oliphant's River, nothing like a bay or harbour presents itself, and the mouth of this fine river precludes all entrance, owing to two bars of sand thrown across it, allowing only small boats to enter. Immediately over the bar the river is deep, and continues so for nearly twenty miles. It is much to be regretted that it is not navigable. However, a place a little more to the southward, called Lambert's Bay, after the admiral of that name, has become serviceable for the village of Clan-William, and a small vessel trades between this spot and Table Bay.

The next harbour that presents itself is St. Helena Bay,—a very large and commodious one, and, as already mentioned, possessing safe anchorage in one part of it. It is, however, greatly exposed to the north-west gales. The Berg River falls into the bay, but its mouth is blocked up by a bar of sand. Saldanha Bay having already been alluded to, it is unnecessary to repeat that it is one of the best bays, when once entered, on the African coast, but nearly destitute of fresh water. Much has been said about bringing the Berg River into this bay ; but I fear, if practicable, this is not a work for the present generation. Saldanha Bay being situated so far to leeward of the Cape of Good Hope, during the south-east monsoon, renders it far from being that desirable naval station so much recommended by some writers.

We now come to Table Bay, the grand rendezvous of the colonial vessels and traders, and the resort of Indiamen for refreshment to and from India. This bay has long been the subject of discussion; and in general its safety as a harbour has been much undervalued, although occasionally during the months of June, July, and August, it

is exposed to the north-west monsoon. Much has been said on the feasibility of a mole or breakwater; but if this could be accomplished, I have my doubts whether it would answer or not. A breakwater, even on as extensive a scale as that at Plymouth, would scarcely stand the sea that would occasionally roll against it; and during the south-east gales I fear more wrecks would be caused by ships driving upon it, than would be saved by its protection in the north-west monsoon. It is also doubtful whether the bay would not fill up with sand and mud, which is now kept clear by the current that sets into the bay on the south side of Robben Island, and runs out at the north side.*

An ingenious plan has been suggested by Captain Knox, of the merchant service, for the formation of a large basin, capable of containing a

* This current is well known by all nautical men to set from the east round the Cape into the Atlantic. However, a recent circumstance caused much doubt upon the subject, viz. after the wreck of the *Perseverance* on the Whale Rock, near Robben Island, a cask of wine, part of her cargo, was found in Simon's Bay, having weathered the point. This appeared to me a mystery, until Captain Owen gave me to understand that an eddy current sets round the Cape, to the east, close to the shore.

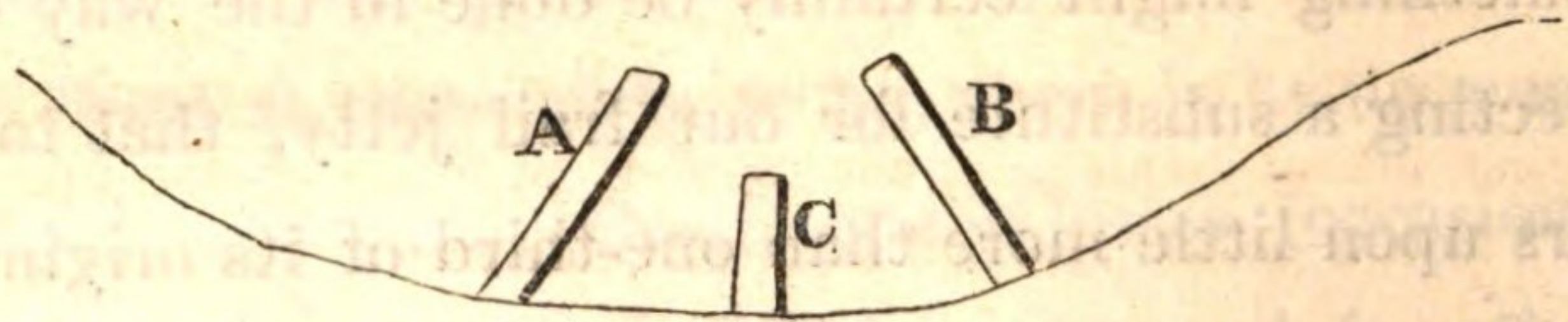
considerable fleet, both of merchantmen and men-of-war. I see no objection to the plan, except the expense, which I fear would both be greater than the projector of it anticipates, or than the Government would undertake without reference to its utility to His Majesty's Navy. Simon's Bay, too, is on so many accounts preferred, as a naval station, that I fear merchant shipping must still trust to good anchors and hempen or coir cables for riding out the gales; and if they are as well found in these as they ought to be, there is by no means the danger which the frequent losses (occasioned in some instances by carelessness, and in others by ignorance,) would lead us to suppose. I should be sorry to insinuate that many cases, and those very distressing ones, have not occurred, where not the slightest blame would attach to the unfortunate sufferers; but I cannot help thinking that there is some truth in the remark which a naval friend made to me, that if captains were sole owners, and their ships uninsured, it would materially contribute to the safety of Table Bay.

The present commodore on the station (H. M. Christian, Esq.), anxious to add to the safety of

Table Bay, has proposed tiers of moorings for vessels of all sizes, which I have little doubt would answer nineteen seasons out twenty, and the expense would be small in comparison with any other plan. Plenty of anchors must be lying at the different depôts in England, and the commodore, with his squadron on the station, would be at the trouble of laying them down.

For the accommodation of the trade of the place, something might certainly be done in the way of erecting a substitute for our frail jetty, that totters upon little more than one-third of its original supports. If the expense is to be considered, funds might easily be raised in shares, secured by a wharfage until the amount is redeemed. The vicinity of Rogge Bay, near the Post-office and Custom-house, appears naturally adapted for the site of a new landing-place, and much more convenient to the town, than where the present wooden jetty stands. Another great advantage in its being placed there would be in the opportunity afforded to boats to go off to the assistance of ships in distress, either in a north-west or south-east gale, whereas it is quite impracticable to

leave the present jetty with a north-west wind, a time when it is often most required to carry off an anchor or cable. The new jetty, or pier, I should propose to be built of stone, which could easily be procured on the spot. The situation to which I allude presents some great natural aids in forming it, as follows: To the right and left, chains of rocks, A and B, run out some distance, as shown in the annexed sketch, on which ought to be con-



structed piers sufficiently substantial to protect the jetty C from the north-west and south-east winds, which would form a wharf for landing goods, &c. The head of the pier C being in tolerably deep water, some of the smaller coasters, in fair weather, might be brought even up to the wharf and discharged: and the basin would form an excellent protection to the small craft and boats, now so much injured in bad weather. The lighthouse (of which an engraving is prefixed to this Chapter) has been alluded

to already, at the entrance to Table Bay, and Captain Owen's directions, inserted in the Appendix, will be a sufficient guide for entering the bay.*

* Considerable discussion has existed among scientific men, as to the fact, whether the ocean has been gaining upon the land, or the land upon the ocean, in this part of the globe. Mr. Barrow argues strongly against the latter hypothesis, and offers some cogent arguments in support of the former. Other writers have adopted different theories. I pretend not to hazard any decided opinion on a subject involved in such difficulties; but the following facts may be not unworthy, perhaps, of being noticed.

1st. Some small islands in Simon's Bay, more particularly Duyker Island, which, in the memory of many of the inhabitants, were once detached from the continent, are now connected by low isthmuses.

2d. On the skirts of the Downs, or Flats, which form an isthmus between the Cape peninsula and the rest of the continent, there was discovered a few years ago, at a considerable distance from the sea, what seemed to be the timbers of a vessel deeply imbedded in the sand. This I had myself a cursory view of, but there was too little of the wood visible to enable me to form any clear judgment of its shape, or probable purpose. I found, however, some metallic substance fixed in the wood in a very corroded state. A nautical gentleman who examined it with more care than I had an opportunity of bestowing, thinks that the wood (which has apparently been buried for ages in the sand) greatly resembles cedar,—and conceives it *possible* that this may be the remains of some ancient Phœnician vessel, wrecked here when our present Cape flats were under water,—forming, perhaps, a shallow strait between Wynberg and the Koeberg. This is

After leaving Table Bay, the only safe harbour between it and the real Cape of Good Hope, is Hout's Bay, perfectly safe when once in, and only slightly affected by the south-east winds: there is one danger near the entrance, a rock laid down in all charts. It is too near Table Bay ever to be a place of any importance in the way of trade.

certainly a rather wild-looking hypothesis,—yet, that the land in the southern extremity of Africa *might* be elevated from the sea without necessarily affecting (as Mr. Barrow supposes) the level of the northern extremity, is evident from the effects produced by recent earthquakes in Chile, in elevating the whole extent of coast for some hundred miles. Is it not, also, possible to account for the formation of a low sandy isthmus like the Cape Downs, from the agency of tides and winds alone collecting a mass of sand in a shallow strait? The formation of the immense sand hills along the southern coast, and on the shores of Table Bay itself, indicate pretty clearly how such an operation would proceed, if once commenced.

Whatever may be in this, Captain Owen seems to have obtained strong evidence of the commerce of the Phœnicians having extended from the Red Sea, much farther down the eastern coasts of Africa than is generally imagined; and to have pretty clearly ascertained that the celebrated gold mines of ancient *Ophir* were situated in the vicinity of Inhamban, —where it is remarkable that a place of the name of *Ophir*, still rich in gold and ivory, exists at the present day. It seems, therefore, not altogether incredible, that the Phœnician mariners may have actually doubled the Cape of Good Hope from the Indian Ocean.

On rounding the Cape of Good Hope,* you enter the wide and extensive False Bay ; so called from ships having often been deceived in coming from the eastward. After rounding Hanglip, in darkish weather, imagining that they had passed the real Cape of Good Hope, they stand to the north, when in a short time they find themselves on the Muizenberg beach, at the bottom of False Bay.

Of Simon's Bay and False Bay, the ample information contained in the works of Mr. Barrow

* On one of my visits to Simon's Town, I made an excursion to this extremity of the Cape promontory,—the real “Cabo Tormentoso,”—in company with some officers of His Majesty's Ships, Owen Glendower, and Martin. The road lay across a rugged chain of rocky hills, composed of the same materials as a great part of the mountains in this part of the Colony,—sandstone and granite. The appearance of this southern abutment of the African continent is bold, bleak, and desolate. In an immense cavern at the bottom of the cliffs, washed occasionally by the billows of the great southern ocean, we found a piece of wreck, consisting of a ship's windlass, &c.,—a melancholy memorial of some one of the many disasters which have happened on this stormy coast since the adventurous Vasco de Gama doubled the promontory four hundred years ago. This cavern seemed to be the resort of innumerable flocks of sea fowl, but contained nothing else remarkable.

and our "Civil Servant," render any farther details altogether superfluous. The dangers too in entering the bays are laid down in all charts,—the Whittle-rock and Seal-island in False Bay, and the Roman Rock, and Noah's Ark, on entering Simon's Bay : on the latter, a light-house would be very desirable. Of the present state and population of Simon's Town, the work last mentioned affords a very full and accurate account.

From False Bay to the Breede River, no harbour of any kind exists. The mouth of this river, now called Port Beaufort, allows vessels of 200 tons to enter, and discharge and load in safety, and has become a regular place of export for the produce of Swellendam. Corn and stock are occasionally exported direct from it to St. Helena ; but this only by special permission, as it has not yet, like Algoa Bay and Port Frances, become a regular port under the Custom-house regulations.

Not far to the east of Port Beaufort is Mossel Bay, very similar in many respects to Algoa Bay, being safe from all winds but the south-east. The landing is good, and a large granary or store-

house is erected at this spot, for the reception of corn for exportation to Cape Town.

The Knysna harbour is well known. The entrance is so narrow, and the rocks so precipitous, that the influx and reflux of the tide keep it clear of sand to the depth of eighteen feet at ebb tide, in the bar. When inside, a finer harbour cannot be desired, as it is perfectly safe from all winds. An interesting chart of this harbour is to be found in Mr. Barrow's work. Its chief export is timber; but there is abundance of land capable of producing corn, so that in time it cannot fail to increase in importance.

Plettenberg's Bay affords good anchorage, and from thence also timber is shipped. Like Algoa Bay, it is exposed to the south-east winds.

The next harbour or inlet we meet with, is the Kromme River and Bay,—the river admitting vessels of 200 tons, and the bay possessing good anchorage for large ships. This place has not hitherto been much visited, and its advantages are little known, but it may become of first-rate importance ere long, if, in addition to the abundance of timber in its neighbourhood, in the Zitzikamma,

and the produce raised by the wealthy boors in the Lange-Kloof and the parts adjacent, it be true that coal is to be found on its banks.

Port Elizabeth, in Algoa Bay, is the next harbour. As a mercantile port, it has become next in importance to Table Bay, and will prove the principal port of the eastern division of the Colony. The Zwartkops River, which flows past Uitenhage, falls into Algoa Bay, and vessels of nearly 200 tons have entered it, but its mouth is occasionally obstructed with a bar of sand. It is however capable of great improvement, and would at no very enormous expense become navigable for steam-vessels nearly to the Drostdy, whose rising importance I have already noticed. Chimerical as this may seem to those who have long considered inland navigation as entirely out of the question, I yet hope to live to see it carried into execution.

Though Algoa Bay has hitherto been considered as the port of the new settlement, its distance from the frontier renders it less eligible than Port Frances at the Kowie River mouth, which is the next port to the eastward, and which river

flows through the heart of the district of Albany. Of the practicability of clearing the bar I have already spoken ; and as Government has laid down moorings off its mouth, and made it a Custom-house port, it is to be hoped they will take an early opportunity of completing a work so essential to the prosperity of that part of the Colony. This is the last harbour on the eastern coast of the Colony.

The Great Fish River is said to have been entered by a boat, under the superintendence of Mr. Bailey, a gentleman in that vicinity ; but the bar is constantly shifting, and the offing is much more exposed than the Kowie mouth. Beyond this I am not personally acquainted with the coast ; but the whole of it having been recently surveyed by Captain Owen, R. N., a much more valuable account will doubtless come before the public from him than any slight sketch I could pretend to give.

Whatever may be the diversity of opinions entertained as to the capabilities of the Cape for becoming a place of commercial importance, it will at least vindicate the judgment of its first founders,

by continuing to be the great half-way house to India. The cheapness and abundance of provisions ; the security of its bays, if resorted to at the proper seasons ; the profits of bringing hither, and carrying back the numerous valetudinarians, who, no longer able to conceal from themselves the effects of the burning sun of India, seek for restoration to health in our milder climate ; and the chances of a market which often affords a sale for Indian produce, profitable enough to pay, at least, their expenses,—will always prove sufficient temptations to the commanders of Indiamen to touch here, in spite of the ill-founded objections against it as a port. The ships of the East India Company indeed, with the exceptions of two annual ships from China, are instructed to avoid the Cape, and resort to their own settlement of St. Helena. But their example in peace, and even their influence, should another war break out, is becoming of less importance, and our fleets of free traders would hardly be compelled, for the convenience of the Company, to relinquish the advantages of the Cape for the expensive rendezvous of St. Helena. A few years more will

probably give to the private traders of Great Britain the same superiority in the trade to China, which they already enjoy in that to India; for it can hardly be supposed that Government will renew the exclusive privileges of the East India Company; and painful as it is to contemplate the decay and gradual extinction of the finest class of merchant ships which ever graced the commercial annals of the world, whether we look to their mere mechanical excellence, or to the high character of the officers brought up in the East India Company's service,—yet, without such exclusive privileges, the trade of China must gradually be transferred into the less splendid, though more extensive channels of individual enterprise.

The increasing trade between Great Britain and her Australian possessions, renders the Cape also important as a place of refreshment to the ships bound to that quarter; and not a few are now beginning to avail themselves of its advantages in this respect, and of the chances of a middle freight, which the increasing intercourse between the two Colonies gives them an occasional opportunity of obtaining.

If the commercial advantages of the Cape be but little tempting to the adventurer for wealth, it is some consolation that no great sacrifice of health is required for its attainment ; and I think this circumstance contributes in some degree to place the state of society on a better footing in this Colony, than it is represented to be in many others. He who stakes his life against a speedy return to his country with “ a fortune,” which he expects will give him importance there, in the eyes of those who will not trouble themselves to inquire how it was accumulated, if he be not careless as to the means he uses to obtain this end, is at least too often but little solicitous for the future advantages of a society which he intends quitting as soon as his purse is made up ; and to this cause may be attributed much of the selfishness and irregularity of principle which are objected against colonists in general. The young and eager votaries of Mammon are continually pouring in, while those whom a more advanced age, and more affluent circumstances, ought to render the ornament and the defence of the country to which they owe their wealth, leave it,—too happy

if they escape with a constitution only half ruined, to return to that which they have never ceased to consider as their "home."

The contrary to all this happens at the Cape, where there is no field for making a rapid fortune, though abundance of room for the profitable exertion of persevering industry ; and when a man feels that he is destined at least to a long residence, if not to pass the remainder of his days, and perhaps to bring up his family in a country, he becomes naturally anxious, not only to uphold his own character by the sacrifice of a thousand little selfish feelings to the general good, but is interested in every improvement of the place and its inhabitants. It becomes, in fact, his country, and when his wealth and leisure increase, he feels little inclination to quit a spot where his conduct has raised him to a rank and consideration comparatively far greater than he could hope to attain in any other situation. Instead, therefore, of sending back to Europe her adventurers rich in purse and poor in constitution, the Cape has a fair chance of retaining within itself the property, experience, and kindly feelings of her inhabitants,

and of gradually advancing in intellectual improvement.

Few ranks in society would gain much increase in happiness by a removal from the Cape, if a salubrious climate, and an easy acquisition of all the necessaries, and many of the conveniencies and luxuries of life may be supposed to promote this end; and in respect to society, this Colony is fortunate above most others in possessing a variety suited to all classes. The gentleman, whether sportsman, scholar, or man of pleasure, may here pass his time with congenial associates. Though it would be absurd to compare the society of Cape Town with that of an European metropolis for extent and variety, it is not too much to state, that there are few men either of rank or talent so exalted as not to find there appropriate companions in the principal official persons of the Colony, (many of them relations and connexions of families of rank in England,) and in the officers of His Majesty's military and naval services, and the visitors from India, who form, in every point of view, so valuable an addition to the population of the Colony.

Of female society I do not profess to be a critic, and my testimony to its merits would be of small value indeed. In any points, however, where it falls short of perfection, the fault cannot be attributed to a want of the brightest example in the highest and most influential quarter; and they must have little experience in the world, who do not know how to estimate this benefit at its full worth.

The working bees of the hive, whether merchants, agriculturists, tradesmen, or mechanics, much less pressed by the severity or duration of their labours, than those of the same classes in England, pass their leisure hours either in their family circle, or in company adapted to their respective habits,—not the less happily perhaps that it becomes less refined in proportion to their gradual descent in the scale of society.

If it be objected that I have spoken in too sanguine terms of the prospects of Southern Africa, I can only reply, that I should be ashamed if I could speak coldly on such a subject. *There* I have passed in happiness the first years of my active life, and laid up experience sufficient, I trust, to

guide my steps hereafter. There I have encountered some dangers, and there experienced the forbearance, hospitality, and protection of all classes of people, from the wandering savage of the desert, to the highest ranks of civilized society. I have met with but little unkindness even from those quarters where commercial rivalry may be supposed not to engender the best feelings. I judge of the future by the past; and many must be the storms I encounter in my farther voyage through life, before I shall cease to esteem the place of my residence in the fullest sense of the word, as the Cape of "GOOD HOPE."

APPENDIX.

...and I have encountered
 the most extraordinary and unexpected
 results in the history of all
 to give a glimpse of the
 some barriers to the
 new conditions of life
 from the very beginning of the
 I should feel and believe that
 that I have had and many
 of the things that I have seen
 in my further voyage

APPENDIX

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 "Hill's" and "Hill's"

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APPENDIX.

No. I.

ACCOUNT OF THE AMAKOSÆ, OR SOUTHERN CAFFERS*.

*History.—Government.—Crimes and Punishments.—Sorcery.
—Religion and Superstitions.—Circumcision.—Marriage.
—Medicine and Surgery.—Funeral Rites.—Dress.—Orna-
ments.—Agriculture.—Hunting.—Language.—Description
of the Country.—Journey through the Amakosa territory.—
Interview with Hinza, the principal Chief.*

HISTORY.—The national appellation of the Southern Caffers is *Amakosa*, the singular of which is *Kosa*. Their country is sometimes called *Amakosina*.

* This account has been extracted from the manuscript notes of the Rev. Mr. Brownlee, who has resided as a missionary among the Caffers for seven or eight years. It was written by Mr. B. (without any knowledge of Lichtenstein's work), entirely from his own observations, and

According to the traditionary accounts which I have collected from their old people, this tribe first settled on the Great Kei River under their chief, Toguh ; but whether they were a colony from the *Tambookie* or *Amatymba* tribe, or from some of the nations farther to the north-east, I have not been able to ascertain. The period of their emigration, as nearly as can be collected from the existing traditions, appears to have been about 150 years ago, or somewhat more.

The sons of Toguh were Gondè, Tindè, and Keitshè. Gondè succeeded his father as principal chief ; and the other two brothers removed from the Kei, and settled on the coast, between the Kalumna* and Buffalo Rivers. At that period the Gonaqua Hottentots had their chief kraals on the coast ; but likewise inhabited the country along the Buffalo River, and up to the very sources of the Keiskamma.

On the death of Gondè, he was succeeded as chief, over part of the tribe, by his son Tshio ; but the younger brother, Mandanka, had been declared by his father independent of Tshio, and a number of the people removed under the guidance of this young chief to the country situated between the Chumi and Kat Rivers, and afterwards occupied also the banks of the Kounap, and the country on the Great Fish River opposite to Somerset.

Tshio had scarcely succeeded to the government, when he

information obtained from the natives. It will be found to corroborate Lichtenstein's statements on many points, and to differ from them in others—especially in the historical details, which in Mr. Brownlee's summary are much less favourable to Gaika. But the missionary, living in habits of daily intercourse with the natives, and speaking their language, may be supposed qualified to give a more accurate representation of such matters than the hasty traveller. In the present sketch, several topics already sufficiently well known, from former writers, have been omitted or curtailed.

* Kalumna is the Caffer pronunciation of *Krumna*, the original Hottentot name.

sent out his forces to attack the clan of Keitshè, and defeated them near the mouth of the Kalumna river ; and after this, (which happened about ninety-seven, or one hundred years ago), the whole of Keitshè's horde removed to the northward, and have never since been heard of. The warrior who had the chief command in the expulsion of Keitshè, was created a chief by Tshio, and from him are descended the Congo family, since so well known on the frontier.

Shortly after this period the Gonaqua Hottentots, who were governed by a chief named Kohla, had established their kraals between the Fish and Bushman Rivers ; and the Caffers of the Kucha and the Tindè clans, being pressed for room, purchased from Kohla the territory along the coast, from the Fish to the Sunday River, including the tract of country now occupied by the British settlers. The price was a large number of cattle. After this amicable arrangement, the Caffers began to occupy the Zuurveld, and the Gonaquas retired northward to the Zuurberg and Bruintjes-hoogte.

The Dutch colonists began, ere long, to extend their settlements to Bruintjes-hoogte. The Hottentots having been subdued or driven back before them, (and the females and children made prisoners and reduced to servitude,) no energetic resistance had hitherto been opposed to their progress ; but when they met with the Caffers at the Fish River, they found them a much more formidable obstacle to their acquiring entire possession of the country. For some time, however, they seem to have avoided any direct acts of oppression, or other measures that might provoke their hostility. The Christian and the Caffer occupied the country together, and lived in amity, until, as the Caffers relate, the following barbarous act of perfidy was perpetrated by the Colonists.

About fifty-six years ago the boors of Bruintjes-hoogte invited the Mandankæ clan of Caffers, of whom Jalumba was then chief, to meet them on the western bank of the Great

Fish River, for the purpose of holding a consultation on some public matters. The Mandankæ attended the meeting, where a palaver was held, and they were entertained with tobacco. After which the boors said they had brought a costly present for their good friends the Caffers; and having spread some rush mats on the ground, they covered them with beads, and invited their visitors to make a scramble, and display their activity in picking them up, upon a signal to be given. The boors then retired a little distance to where their guns were lying ready loaded with two or three bullets each. The signal was given by the Veld-Cornet Botman. The Caffers rushed upon the beads, overturning each other in their eagerness. The boors at the same instant seized their guns and poured in a volley upon their unsuspecting visitors; and so destructive was their murderous aim, that very few, it is said, escaped the massacre! The residue of the Mandankæ immediately abandoned the banks of the Fish River, and sought refuge in the Zuurveld with the Chief Congo, and their countrymen of the Tindè tribe.

But to return to the royal family. On the death of Tshio, his two sons, Galeka* and Palo,† ruled in amicable conjunction. On the decease of the latter, there was a regular division of the Amakosa nation, by mutual consent; and Kachabè, the son of Palo, migrated from the Great Kei River with all his followers, and settled near the sources of the Keiskamma and Chumi.

Kachabè, after establishing himself in this part of the country, married his eldest daughter to a chief of the Tambookies (Amatymbæ); but not being satisfied with the cattle that were given by the bridegroom, he sent his eldest son

* The *Tgareka* of Lichtenstein.

† *Palo* was generally known among the colonial boors during his time by the name of *Pharaoh*, and some of them fancied that he was a lineal descendant of the Egyptian monarchs.

Umlào to demand a farther contribution. The young chief, however, died in the Tambookie country; and whether there was any suspicion of treachery, or that his father only wanted a pretence for his violence, Kachabè immediately afterwards attacked the Tambookies, pretending that they had employed sorcery against him. After a great deal of fighting, Kachabè succeeded in bringing off his daughter, and ravaged the Tambookie country to such a degree, that part of it lay desolate for many years afterwards; but this turbulent chieftain was ultimately overthrown and slain in one of his marauding expeditions.

On the death of Kachabè, his second son S'Lhambi* succeeded him as regent of the tribe,—Gaika, the son of Umlào, the lineal heir, being yet a minor. S'Lhambi, the better to secure his own authority, placed his sister Ishusa over those kraals that had been under the sway of his deceased brother Umlào.

The only thing worthy of notice that occurred during Gaika's minority, was an attack on the clan of Congo, at the instigation of the Dutch colonists. Congo was assailed on one side by S'Lhambi, and on the other by the boors at the same time; yet, though many of his followers were destroyed, he kept his ground in spite of his enemies. At this time Gaika was a very young man; and was carried by S'Lhambi on the expedition, to train him to hardihood and heroism.

It was at this period that the Caffers first began to carry on extensive depredations against the colonists; and, as was to be expected, the Mandankæ race, who had now become a broken clan, and were dispersed among the other tribes, were the most inveterate in pursuing a system of hostility to their colonial antagonists.

Gaika began, at length, to dread and to oppose the influ-

* This name is usually but erroneously written *Sambie* or *T'Sambeh*. The real pronunciation of the initial sound is like that of the Welsh *Ll*.

ence of his uncle in the nation ; and what he could not effect by force, he did by artifice. The first of his warlike exploits was to plunder some kraals belonging to S'Lhambi's adherents. This successful foray was achieved by the aid of a number of young men about his own age. On a remonstrance being made to S'Lhambi, he interfered, and made the cattle be given up. But, it seems, this act of audacity gained Gaika no small admiration, particularly among the young warriors of his tribe.

The next step he took was still more decided. He ordered his followers to seize and carry off a number of S'Lhambi's own cattle ; and when his uncle's adherents followed, he attacked and drove them back with disgrace. Upon this S'Lhambi came to Gaika in a peaceable manner, and remonstrated against his violent conduct : but such an adept was the juvenile chief already in dissimulation, that he pretended to be entirely ignorant of the transaction, and thus contrived to pacify his uncle, who returned to his own kraal at the Debè River. But he had scarcely arrived there, when Gaika collected all his followers, and surprised S'Lhambi, drove him from his kraal, and forced him to take shelter in the territory of his cousin Bucho. The fugitive chief was supported by Bucho, and a great force was collected to attack Gaika. But the latter was on the alert ; and falling suddenly upon them, routed their forces, and took S'Lhambi and Hinza prisoners. The latter, being only a boy, he discharged, but kept his uncle a prisoner at large.

Shortly after this, numbers of the smaller clans removed from the Caffer territory, and joined Congo. Several bands also marched to the northward towards the Great Orange River ; and considerable numbers advanced westward into the Zuurveld, and the country towards the Zwartkops River.

S'Lhambi, after having remained for some time a prisoner, was permitted by Gaika to leave his kraal, and settled in the Zuurveld.

At this time numbers of the Caffers were dispersed among the boors, within the Colony, and lived peaceably,—some as servants and dependants, others having herds of cattle, which they grazed in unoccupied tracts of land.

On the frontier, however, mutual hostility and depredation continued to subsist between the Caffers and the Christians. Reciprocal injuries had generated reciprocal animosity, and the Caffers, mindful of former wrongs, were ready on all occasions to plunder the boors. At length, about 1810, complaints of these disorders became so urgent, that an order was issued by the Colonial Government (now British) to drive them across the Fish River. At the time the Commando assembled to accomplish this object, it was in the summer, when their crops of vegetables were fit for using. There is little doubt that the Caffers felt very reluctant to leave a country which they had occupied the greater part of a century; and the hardship of abandoning their crops was urgently pleaded,—since, in consequence of this measure, they must necessarily suffer a year of famine. And having, at a remote period, bought part of the country from the Aborigines, and (as they alleged) paid a second price to the Colonial Authorities on the frontier for an enlargement of territory only a few years previous to this time, they remonstrated strongly against the injustice of the order.

These remonstrances, however, were not listened to. All the Caffers were collected who had been living among the Colonists, and conducted by a military escort over the Great Fish River. The Caffers in Albany retreated, but only before the Commando, and showed determined reluctance in quitting a country which they might certainly with some propriety call their own. During these proceedings there was some intercourse still between the Commando and the main body of the Caffers, and an interview was proposed between the Caffer chiefs and the Landdrost of Graaff-Reinet, Mr. Stockenstrom.

That magistrate, who was well acquainted with many of the chiefs, met some of the Mandankæ Caffers belonging to Congo, in the middle of a wood near the Zuurberg, with little more than a dozen attendants. These Caffers, perhaps recollecting the murder of their forefathers by the Colonists, took this opportunity to obtain their revenge; for Mr. Stockenström and most of his attendants were treacherously murdered on the spot.

After the Caffers had been driven over the Fish River, military posts were established on its banks to prevent their return, and check their depredations. However, from this period to 1817, they continued to annoy the Colonists on the frontier by occasional inroads,—sometimes murdering the herdsmen, and taking away the cattle; and although there was every precaution adopted by the military, such is the nature of the country along the Fish River, that ten times the number of troops that have ever been kept on the frontier would have been quite insufficient to prevent these disorders. Their marauding parties seldom consist of more than six or eight men, and often not more than two or three; therefore, a patrol of ten or more troops sent out in search of two or three Caffers, are seldom successful in overtaking them.

In 1817 the Governor visited Cafferland, and had an interview with Gaika, and some of the other chiefs, when it was arranged, that all cattle in their possession of colonial breed, and all horses should be given up. The Caffers had been in a state of frequent warfare with the Colony for forty years prior to this period, long before it was taken by the English; and it is therefore probable, that cattle taken in what they considered just warfare, may thus have been extorted from them, and thus increased their secret heart-burnings.

One particular arrangement then made, was, that if cattle stolen from the Colony were traced to any Caffer kraal, that

kraal should be held responsible, and either find the cattle or give an equal number.

Another arrangement proposed by the Colonial Government on this occasion was, to make Gaika responsible for the conduct of the Caffer nation, and that the Government should treat only with him, and have nothing to do with any of the other chiefs. This gave Gaika some consequence, but gained him no respectability; for the plan proposed was repugnant to the feelings of the other Caffers, as every chief considers himself a king in his own kraal, and altogether irresponsible to any superior.

From this period, Gaika acted according to his engagement, and a number of horses and Colonial cattle were sent out. Yet S'Lhambi and some of his adherents did not acknowledge Gaika's authority; and in some instances they sent out cattle themselves, without acquainting Gaika. This renewed the old jealousy between them.]

During these proceedings Makanna (or Lynx, as he is commonly called in the Colony), who was a Caffer of intelligence, and had some ideas of religion, imposed on the credulity of his countrymen, and by professing to be a teacher and prophet, acquired great respect among all the adherents of Congo and S'Lhambi's party. He collected a number of followers around him, and by his humane and popular conduct and high pretensions, gained a very great name in the country, and became the chief counsellor of the disaffected chiefs. Gaika was well aware of the influence of Makanna; but the means by which he tried to counteract it, only resulted in rendering himself less popular.

The state of the frontier remained much the same, and in Cafferland there was much secret animosity gaining ground. S'Lhambi despised Gaika, and said, "Shall I be subject to a boy, whom I have nursed?" Makanna, knowing the hatred of Gaika towards himself, did all in his power to set the other

chiefs at variance with him. At this period there was also a misunderstanding between Gaika's Caffers and those belonging to Hinza; and one thing that particularly created resentment against the former was, that some of his men took away by force some of the plumes of the crown feathers (which are worn by the warriors) from Hinza's people. Gaika, moreover, thought proper to take to himself a wife (Tata), who belonged to one of S'Lhambi's counsellors; and on a remonstrance being made on the subject, refused to give her up. This led to a serious dissension among the Caffer clans, and they began to make preparations for war, particularly in making ready shields and assagais. These preparations and the assembling of the forces were entirely under the superintendence of Dusani, S'Lhambi's son and successor in his chieftainship. Makanna had also a leading hand in all this, and a number of Hinza's people joined against Gaika.

The place where they engaged was between the Buffalo River and the Debè. Gaika's people had been assembled to meet the enemy for part of two days, and in this time they had nothing to eat. The place where they assembled was on the side of a hill, not far from the Debè; and on this hill, Gaika sat when his men went on to the combat. S'Lhambi's party had several guns, which annoyed Gaika's followers, and made them in a short time give way. From the small number of assagais they carry, their conflicts are generally soon over; though not unfrequently they meet in a bushy place, and continue skirmishing for a good part of a day. But in this engagement there was a complete chase, and S'Lhambi's party having a number of horses, they came up with the fugitives, and made a selection of those who had the greatest riches, that is, who had most beads and ornaments; these were slain, while others, from their apparent poverty, were suffered to escape. The number killed was considerable; and Gaika lost the whole of his old counsellors, with the ex-

ception of one. The victors did not continue the pursuit ; but Jaluhsa, the brother of S'Lhambi, who from his position, (residing between Gaika's kraal and the Kat River,) and his promise to support Gaika's party, had been restrained from joining his brother, on seeing the defeat of the former immediately joined in plundering, and captured a great number of cattle between the Chumi and Keiskamma, belonging to Gaika's followers.

Gaika, after this defeat, fled westward, near to the sources of the Kounap River, and with all possible speed made his situation known to the Colonial Authorities on the frontier. Shortly after, there was a strong force sent from the Colony to chastise S'Lhambi and his adherents, which in a very short period captured a great number of cattle. Nine thousand were given to Gaika as a remuneration for the losses he had sustained, and more than that number were brought out to the Colony. The confederate chiefs then turned all their fury against the Colony, and in a very short time, the country between the Fish River and the Zwartkops was overrun by the Caffers, and several of the small military posts were obliged to be evacuated. The boors who inhabited the Zuurveld fled, and removed their cattle to the westward of Uitenhage. In these attacks, the Caffers showed a determined resolution to recover their cattle ; yet, although they killed many of the soldiers and colonists, they did not evince that blood-thirsty disposition that is common to most barbarians. When they could get away the cattle without being opposed, they made no attempt on the lives of the inhabitants.

After they had overrun the whole country, they assembled in great force to attack Graham's Town. The Caffers engaged in this enterprise were the adherents of S'Lhambi, Congo, Habanna, and Makanna, with a few of Hinza's followers, whom Dusani, S'Lhambi's son, had prevailed on to join his party. The Caffers were under the command of

Makanna and Dusani, and it is certain they were well aware of the smallness of the military force in Graham's Town ; whether through the medium of Gaika's interpreters, or from their own spies, is doubtful. Before the attack, Gaika gave information at the military post at Roodewal, stating what the hostile chiefs were concerting. The Caffers were elated by their former success, and Makanna had assured them of victory ; yet from the bloody defeat they met with on this occasion,* it is obvious what a vast superiority the use of fire-arms confers, and how weak an enemy the Caffers are, when encountered by Europeans in the open plain.

After the failure of their attack on Graham's Town, the Caffers were much disconcerted, and retreated in a short time over the Fish River. In August 1819, a great Commando entered Cafferland, and captured, in a short time, a vast number of cattle in the kraals along the Fish River. The Commando from the district of Graaff-Reinet, entered Cafferland from the Tarka, and came upon the inhabited part of the country near the sources of Kat River ; but before their arrival in that quarter, S'Lhambi had crossed the Keiskamma ; and Congo, who was near the mouth of the Fish River, with Habanna, after an interview with Major Fraser, was allowed to remain on the coast between the Fish and Keiskamma Rivers. At the same time Makanna, finding he was declared an outlaw by the Colonial Government, and ordered to be taken dead or alive, surrendered himself to the Landdrost of Graaff-Reinet, upon his life being guaranteed. He was sent a prisoner to Robben Island,—a fate which he appears not to have anticipated ; and was soon after drowned in attempting to make his escape.

The Commando proceeded to scour the Caffer country ; one party penetrating along the coast almost to the mouth of the Kei ; another along the mountains and woods near the

* See notice of this attack, at page 63, vol. i.

sources of the Keiskamma and Buffalo Rivers. The regular troops brought up the baggage, and acted as a guard for the captured cattle, being posted in the centre of the country. S'Lhambi's followers having retreated to the Kei, afterwards proceeded up that river; and though the pursuit was continued by the Commando of boors on horseback, they were never able to come up with the main body of the Caffers. The foot soldiers proceeded slowly along with the waggons and artillery; and although the whole country in their route was deserted by most of the inhabitants, except the women and children, on several occasions numbers of these helpless creatures were shot,—who being unable to fly with their children along with the armed Caffers, had taken shelter in the ravines and woods. The European troops, not being able to distinguish them at first from the men, fired upon them indiscriminately; which created great horror and indignation in the country,—for the Caffer tribes, in their own wars, never kill nor molest the women and children.

The number of cattle captured by this Commando was very considerable—nearly thirty thousand,—and these mostly taken from S'Lhambi's followers. They were distributed among such of the frontier boors as had lost cattle by Caffer depredations during the late disorders. Part were also sold to defray the expense of the Commando.

On the termination of hostilities, the Commandant had an interview with Gaika, when it was settled that the country between the Keiskamma and Fish Rivers was to be evacuated, and to remain neutral and unoccupied, except by military posts. S'Lhambi was proclaimed an outlaw, and ordered to be delivered up by the other Caffers. But although this was the arrangement between Gaika and the Colonial Government, S'Lhambi was neither forsaken by his adherents, nor lost any share of his former influence in the country.

After this convention the troops on the frontier were employed in building a fort and barracks on the Keiskamma,

now called Fort Willshire. Gaika, when obliged to evacuate the Neutral Territory, remarked, that he was indeed indebted to the Colonial Government for protection, and his existence as a chief—"but," added he, "when I look at the large extent of fine country which has been taken from me, I am compelled to say, that though protected, I am rather oppressed by my benefactors."

GOVERNMENT.—All those who have the rank of chiefs among the Amakosæ, are, with only one or two exceptions, lineal descendants by male issue from Toguh: Hinza and Gaika are the eighth in direct succession from this patriarch. The Congo family, as has been already noticed, are the descendants of a warrior who distinguished himself under Tshio; and Makanna, though of obscure origin, had acquired by his talents and supernatural pretensions, a rank in the nation equal or superior to the chiefs of purest lineage. These, however, are exceptions; and the blood royal of the race of Toguh may be said to be the aristocracy of the Amakosæ.

The chiefs are the principal judges, and every matter of importance is decided by them. Next in rank are persons selected from the common class of Caffers, as counsellors to the chiefs. These are usually the wisest, the bravest, or the wealthiest of the tribe. The oldest counsellors have the precedence; the others rank according to their standing in office. This office is not hereditary; but it frequently happens that the son succeeds the father in it. The great advantage which all the chiefs, great and small, possess over the other classes is, that the property of the former is hereditary, while that of the latter may be claimed, on their decease, by the chief, under whom they have lived. This pretension, however, is on many occasions only partially enforced, in others not at all; and among some tribes, as for instance the Man dankæ, it has fallen entirely into disuse. Among the Tambookies it has no existence.

Although there is more freedom among the Caffers than in many countries far more advanced in civilization, yet it must not be concealed that there also exists a good deal of injustice and violence, and that the weak are often oppressed by the strong. The division of the Amakosæ into numerous independent clans, however, although it renders them weak and unprogressive as a community, is favourable to the liberty of the lower ranks; for when the subject of any particular chief finds himself deeply aggrieved or oppressed, he seeks protection from some rival chief; and as it is the interest of all to increase the number of their adherents, an asylum is scarcely ever refused, or the refugee given up to his former lord. The fear of desertion consequently operates as a considerable check on the arrogance and cupidity of the chieftains.

CRIMES AND PUNISHMENTS.—The Caffers are not of that vindictive and blood-thirsty disposition, which is generally so characteristic of savage nations. Murder is not frequent among them; one great reason of which is, that most grievances (except those inflicted by powerful chiefs) are immediately redressed, by the offender being publicly tried, and punished or fined according to his demerits.

When offences are committed, or disputes occur, and the matter cannot be settled by the interference of friends, it is brought by the aggrieved party before his chieftain's court. Those concerned are immediately summoned to appear before a public meeting of the tribe or clan. The place where the meetings are convened is usually the cattle kraal of the horde or village; but if the weather be very warm, they sometimes assemble under the shade of the trees in some neighbouring wood.

The parties concerned sit at the entrance of the kraal or place of assembly; the rest take their station in a circle within; but women are not allowed to enter, and only a few

of the oldest and most respectable persons speak. When the matter is of great importance, the most profound attention is paid. The speakers rise in succession, with the greatest decorum; and make long and animated harangues, until all sides of the subject have been fully considered and discussed. After this the chief, who acts as president of the court, gives his opinion, and refers it to the consideration of the assembly, who either concur in his decision, or assign their reasons for dissent. Sometimes an important cause is kept pending for several days; but this is not generally the case,—for as there are no fees for the advocates, the length of the process does not increase the costs.

Murder, when it occurs, is generally the result of sudden passion, and it is not avenged (except in the case of a chief) by any severer punishment than the seizure of the whole property of the criminal.

Theft is punished by fining the culprit:—thus if a person steal a cow, and slaughter it at his kraal, every one implicated is obliged to pay a beast to the plaintiff; so that it frequently happens that a theft is repaid twenty-fold.

Adultery is also punished by fine; and this fine is generally in proportion to the rank of the woman and the respectability of the prosecutor. If the husband, however, should chance to detect his wife in adultery, he may legally kill her partner in guilt—and such a slaughter would not be prosecuted nor revenged. Formerly the chiefs used to put to death any man detected in criminal intercourse with their wives; but they now generally content themselves with seizing the whole property of the offender. The woman is seldom punished otherwise than by divorce or corporal chastisement.

If an unmarried woman becomes pregnant, and her paramour refuses to take her to wife, he is obliged to pay a fine equal to the dowry he would have had to pay to her parents

had he sought her in marriage. The women are not unacquainted with means of procuring miscarriage, and not unfrequently resort to such means, especially in illicit connexions; but for this crime there is no punishment.

Besides fining, the following modes of punishment are occasionally put in practice:—beating the culprit with rods; applying hot stones to his naked body; or exposing him to be tormented by clusters of black ants. Capital punishment is inflicted either by the culprit being killed with a club, strangled, drowned, or thrust through with an assagai; and sometimes by being fixed in the cleft of a tree, forcibly drawn asunder to admit the convict, and then allowed to close on him.

SORCERY.—These latter severe punishments and cruel tortures are most commonly inflicted for the imaginary crime of witchcraft or sorcery, which is a most prevailing superstition among all the Caffer tribes, and one of the most deplorable calamities which result from their ignorance of true religion.

The mode in which this delusion usually operates is as follows.—Disease, especially if of any unusual description, is commonly ascribed to sorcery. A witch-doctor is immediately sent for, and these impostors never fail to encourage such belief. The sorcerer is believed to effect his malignant purposes by hiding some charmed thing about the hut of the person afflicted. Search is therefore made for such objects; and the doctor digs up or pretends to find them, consisting of bits of horn, hide, or any thing else that can be discovered, though of the most ordinary description. Some person is then fixed upon as the sorcerer. The accused is seized, and, if unable at once to repel the accusation, is put to the torture by some of the modes formerly mentioned, in order to force a confession. This is generally extorted,—for few of the poor

wretches have resolution to persist in maintaining their innocence amidst the torments to which the cruel ingenuity of their persecutors subjects them. Conviction thus obtained, the culprit, according to the enormity of his supposed crime, is condemned either to a cruel death, to corporal chastisement, or to a fine of cattle. Sometimes the accused escapes, even after confession, without any other infliction than that of a bad character—for he must ever after suffer the opprobrium and dangerous suspicion of sorcery.

RELIGION AND SUPERSTITIONS.—The Caffers believe in a Supreme Being, to whom they give the appellation of *Uhlanga* (Supreme,) or frequently the Hottentot name *Ulîka* (Beautiful.) They also believe in the immortality of the soul; but have no idea of a future state of rewards and punishments. Of a superintending Providence they have some notion; and sometimes pray for success in their warlike or hunting expeditions,—and in sickness, for health and strength. They believe in the attendance of the souls of their deceased relations; and in great emergencies, and especially on going to war, invoke their aid. On the death of a friend they fast for some time; and the first time they eat, they pray that the spirit of the deceased may be propitious. The spirit they call *Shulûga*.

They conceive that thunder proceeds from the direct operation of the Deity; and if a person is killed by lightning, they say that God (*Uhlanga*) has been amongst them. On such occasions they sometimes remove their residence from the spot, and offer a heifer or an ox in sacrifice. If cattle are struck dead by lightning, they are carefully buried. Sometimes they sacrifice to the rivers in the time of drought, by killing an ox and throwing part of it into the channel.

There are also superstitions connected with certain animals, of which it is difficult to understand the origin. For in-

stance, if a person is accidentally killed by an elephant, it is usual to offer a sacrifice, apparently to appease the demon that is supposed to have actuated the animal: and if a person kill by accident a *mahem*, (or Balearic crane,) or one of those birds which the Colonists call *brom-vogel*, (a species of tucan,) he is obliged to sacrifice a calf or young ox in atonement.

They sometimes imagine that a spirit (*shulùga*) resides in a particular ox, and propitiate it by prayers when going on their hunting expeditions. They also conceive that certain persons possess the power of prospering their undertakings; and therefore occasionally implore their favourable influence, and when fortunate, ascribe their success to their agency.

CIRCUMCISION, &c.—Circumcision is a rite strictly and universally practised among the Caffer tribes; but they possess no tradition respecting its origin. It is regarded as an important ceremony, by which the youths, when arrived at the age of puberty, are admitted to the rank of manhood. On this occasion, the boys to be circumcised have a separate kraal or residence allotted them, where, after the operation, they must reside three months, separate from the rest of the community. As soon as they are circumcised, they are smeared over with pipe-clay, and must remain painted in this fashion during the whole time of their noviciate. During this period they are not allowed to work or do any menial office, but persons are appointed to attend them, who supply them with victuals, or whatever other necessities they may require, but who must not control them in any of their wishes or whims. Thus they are permitted to pluck the maize or melons in the gardens without contradiction; and should they even think fit to kill some of the cattle, they are not to be opposed nor found fault with. The whole three months are spent in dancing, and visiting other youths at the neighbour-

ing kraals, who are undergoing the same probationary ceremony as themselves.

They are daily visited by the women and children of their own kraal, before whom they dance. They are obliged to wear a sort of *kilt*, or petticoat of palm leaves, which is made by fastening the leaves to a cord long enough to go five times round the body, so that their loose ends reach about half-way down the thigh. This has a fantastic but not unpleasing appearance, and makes an odd rustling noise while they are dancing. They wear also a cap of the same materials, which is so contrived that the leaves partly cover the face.

After the noviciate of three months has expired, a new carosse or mantle is prepared for each. They are washed from the pipe-clay, and smeared over with fat and iron ore, and all their temporary huts, palm dresses, and old carosses, are burned. They are then brought into the public kraal of their village, where all the people are assembled to receive them. After sitting some time alone, one of the oldest men addresses them in a formal harangue; the purport of which is, to admonish them to consider themselves hereafter as men, to conduct themselves properly as such, and to forget and cast behind them childish things. After this address, they are admitted into fellowship and society with the men; and all their friends make them presents, such as assagais, buttons, beads, and other ornaments.

The Caffers despise Hottentots, Bushmen, Malays, and other people of colour, on account of their not being circumcised. On this account, they regard them as boys, and will not allow them to sit in their company, or to eat with them. Europeans they appear to consider as a higher caste.

The young females, on arriving at the age of puberty, are also subjected to certain restrictions and ceremonies. They are secluded in a separate hut for ten days; and during this period are not allowed to drink milk. The parents of

each girl thus immured must slaughter a beast for her ; which is divided among the female children of the kraal. The noviciate concludes with a feast and dancing ; and after this period the young maidens take their rank in the society of women, and are considered marriageable.*

MARRIAGE.—The young females are often betrothed before they arrive at marriageable state. The marriages are generally made by the parents, and it is not unusual for them to send one of their daughters to a family when there is a young man of fit age to be married. With the young girl some attendants are sent ; and if the father of the youth is pleased with the maiden, and consents to give the number of cattle required by her family, there is a beast slaughtered, and after several days spent in feasting and dancing, the young couple are acknowledged as man and wife.

The price generally paid by the family of the bridegroom to that of the bride is ten oxen ; but the chiefs, when they marry wives of high lineage, must sometimes give five or six times that number.

On the marriage of a woman of rank there is an address delivered to her by one of the old men of her own tribe, before she leaves the home of her kindred, admonishing her how to conduct herself with propriety in her new relationship ;—that she must strive to be a prudent housewife, be obedient to her husband, attentive to his aged parents, particularly when sick,—careful of whatever is committed to her charge ; and is specially enjoined to be meek and submissive when insulted, and to remain silent, “even though she be accused of witchcraft,”—which is considered the deepest insult that can be offered, and is usually expressed by throwing ashes upon their heads.

* This seems to be the same ceremony as that of Boïalloa, witnessed by the author at Kuruman.

On her arrival at the kraal of the bridegroom, she is conducted to a hut, while some of the young men dance around and sweep the ground with branches before her, as an intimation that she is expected in like manner to be always neat, clean, and orderly in her household.

Polygamy is freely allowed, nor is there any restriction in regard to the number of wives which a man may take; but on account of the considerable number of cattle required by the relatives as a maiden's dowry, and the difficulty of supporting a numerous family, scarcely any man of common rank weds more than one. Some of the chiefs, however, have four or five wives; and Gaika, who is somewhat of a Turk in this, as well as in other respects, has upwards of a dozen. In their connubial connexions they observe with great strictness certain rules of consanguinity, and are particularly scrupulous never to intermarry with persons descended from the same ancestors with themselves, although related only in the ninth or tenth degree. If they are able to trace their descent from the same progenitor, however remote, they are always called brothers and sisters. In consequence of this law, the Amakosæ chiefs usually procure their principal wives from the Tambookie tribe, because all the families of rank in their own nation are of the same lineage.—If a wife dies without children, it is not forbidden for the husband to marry one of her sisters.

If a wife leaves her husband, and refuses to return, her husband may demand back all the cattle which he paid her father and friends as dowry gift; but if she has borne him children, her relatives are not obliged to return the dowry,—the children being viewed as an equivalent for the mother.

MEDICINE AND SURGERY.—They are aware of the medicinal virtues of several plants, and use them when sick as purgatives, emetics and carminatives. For severe head-achs

they universally practise cupping on the temples, which they perform by making slight incisions, and then placing upon the part the end of a bullock's horn, perforated for the purpose, and sucking till a sufficient quantity of blood be withdrawn. If the distemper does not yield to this remedy, they shave the head and apply to it a quantity of the leaves of certain plants, which occasion profuse perspiration.

They have considerable expertness in setting a broken bone or reducing a dislocation. In setting bones, they bind the limb, with pieces of bark laid along the fracture. In wounds they apply the leaves of various plants ;after which, nature is left to effect a cure. In cases of debility in the muscles of the hand or fingers, they are accustomed to cut off the first joint of the little finger.

There are a few midwives among them, but in general the Caffer women are delivered without any assistance.

FUNERAL RITES, &c.—The Caffers, in former days, buried their dead, but at the present time only the chiefs and persons of consequence are interred. When they think that death is approaching, they carry out the sick person into a thicket near the kraal, and leave him to expire alone ; for they have a great dread of being near, or touching a corpse, and imagine that death brings misfortune on the living when it occurs in a hut or kraal. Owing to this superstition, they are so anxious to get rid of the dying, that it sometimes happens that those who have the honour of being buried, are actually interred while yet alive. I know of one case of a woman, who, after she was put into the grave, called out for her mother. Cases have also occasionally occurred, where those who had been carried out into the woods have got better,—though this happens but seldom. I know one instance of a Caffer, who, after being carried into the woods, and remaining four days there, recovered and crept home to the

house of his mother, who on seeing him had almost expired from fear, thinking his appearance preternatural.

When a person dies, there is a fast held for that day by the whole hamlet. A man on the death of his wife is considered unclean, and must separate himself from society for two weeks, and fast for some days. He is not allowed to enter any kraal or dwelling, but must remain in the field, where his food is brought to him, until the period of separation is expired; and before he is re-admitted he must have a new dress. The wife must observe the same rules on the death of her husband,—only her period of separation is longer.

Every part of the dress of a deceased person is considered unclean, and must be destroyed or thrown away; and even his beads and ornaments must be purified and strung anew. The hut, also, of the deceased, although he were removed from it before death, must be shut up; no person ever enters it again, and the children are forbid to go near it. It is called the house of the dead. It is left to fall gradually to decay, and no one dares even to touch the materials of which it is constructed till they have crumbled into dust.

The chiefs are always interred in the cattle-fold, as the place of greatest honour.

DRESS AND ORNAMENTS.—Both sexes wear a *carosse* or mantle of softened hide, generally of the bullock, but sometimes also of the leopard, antelope, or other wild animals. To the mantle of the females is affixed a long stripe of leather which hangs from the shoulders down the back, and is ornamented with rows of buttons and other trinkets. The females wear a sort of petticoat of leather round the loins, and have usually, also, a covering over the bosom. When in full dress, they wear a sort of turban of the fur of the beautiful little antelope, the blue buck. From the neck is suspended a

small tortoise-shell, filled with the seed of a species of celery, which they bruise, and use in perfuming their bodies. The ornaments of the men are armlets of copper or ivory, strings of beads suspended round their necks and from their ears, &c. and most of them wear a girdle of brass beads round their bodies. The males have no apron or covering round the loins, and their first appearance is on that account, to European eyes, unpleasantly naked. Most of the young men have their bodies painted red, and their hair curled into small knots like pease. Both sexes have their bodies tattooed, especially on the shoulders.

AGRICULTURE. — BREAD. — BEER. — POTTERY. — The chief object of Caffer cultivation is a species of millet (*holcus sorgum*); besides which they raise maize, kidney-beans, pumpkins, and water melons. Their seed-time commences about the middle of August, and terminates in November. They ascertain the season for commencing, by observing the position of the Pleiades and some other constellations. The ground is chiefly cultivated by the females. The implement used is a sort of spade made of the *nies-hout* tree, in shape not unlike the broad end of an oar. They sow the grain on the surface of the ground before it is digged, and cover it in as they proceed. They only turn up the soil to the depth of about three inches; but all the weeds and grass roots are carefully picked out and spread on the surface of the cultivated plot, where they remain as a covering to protect the young plants when germinating, and from being battered by heavy rains, or burnt up by drought. As soon as the plants have made their appearance above this covering, it is carefully removed; and if the seeds have failed on any spot, it is replanted.

The fences of the fields and gardens consist of thorny shrubs cut for the purpose annually. This part of the work is performed by the men; and they usually inclose a much

larger area than is cultivated, and leave a broad space between the hedge and the cultivated ground, in order that the cattle may not be so much tempted to break through.

If the season be favourable, the maize is fit for use in January, and they have a succession of crops till April. Early pumpkins they have about the same time. The crops of millet are usually ripe about the middle of April. Of this latter grain they have several varieties; one (the stalk of which has a taste not unlike sugar cane, but the seed a bitter and rather an astringent flavour,) is raised solely for the purpose of making beer; the other sort is their bread corn. The water-melon chiefly cultivated by them, is a peculiar species; and they preserve it by cutting it in slices, and hanging it up in their huts to be used as need requires.

They make bread by grinding the millet between two stones with the hand. It is baked by covering it up with hot ashes, and has very much the flavour of oaten cakes. It is nutritive, and by no means unpleasant. Bread is sometimes made also from malted corn; and sometimes the meal is made into porridge; but the most common way of using their corn is by boiling it unground, either alone, or with slices of pumpkin.

Their beer is made in the following manner.—The grain is first malted, and afterwards dried and ground. It is then boiled up into a pretty thick porridge; and to this are added two parts of water. While in a tepid state, some of the meal made from the malt is thrown into it; in a short time fermentation takes place; and it is then considered fit for drinking. The taste is far from disagreeable; and with proper vessels, and a little more skill, there is no reason to doubt that very good beer might be thus manufactured.

The Caffers preserve their corn in magazines contrived in the following manner.—A pit is dug in the cattle kraal, little more than a foot in diameter at the entrance, but gradually widening to the bottom; and the sides are plastered with a

mixture of sand and cow-dung. Being filled to the mouth with grain, the orifice is closed with a flat stone, and so secured that no water can penetrate. These magazines hold from ten to twenty-eight bushels; and this being a quantity inconvenient for a family to dispose of when the store is opened, they are in the habit of lending to one another in rotation. The grain kept in these pits, being entirely excluded from the air, soon loses the power of germinating; and therefore what is intended for seed is reserved in the ear, and hung up in their huts till required.

They make a coarse sort of earthenware by kneading a paste of clay mixed with river sand, and afterwards fashioning the vessels with the hand. These, after being dried in the sun, are baked in a fire of cow-dung. They are generally used for boiling victuals. They use also a few wooden vessels, carved out of soft wood; and their rush baskets are well known, which are so closely woven as to retain milk and other liquids.

HUNTING.—Though not, like the poor Bushmen, impelled to the chase to provide for their subsistence, they are passionately fond of it, as an active and animating amusement. They generally go out to hunt in large parties; and when they find game in the open fields, they endeavour to surround the animals, or drive them to some narrow pass, which is previously occupied by long files of hunters, stationed on either side, who, as the herd rushes through between, pierce them with showers of assagais. This mode is chiefly pursued with the larger sorts of antelopes. The smaller bucks they sometimes knock down with the *kirri*, or war club, which they throw with great force and expertness: birds are generally killed with the same weapon. They have also modes of catching the smaller game by gins and springes, fixed in their paths through the woods and thickets.

In hunting the elephant they use great caution, for when enraged, he is a very formidable antagonist. They usually select a situation to attack him where there is covert to assist them in eluding his pursuit, without being so dense as to incumber their own movements.* When the elephant singles out any one of the hunters, he flies to leeward, and gets be-

* The following anecdotes may serve to show how dangerous an animal the elephant is when provoked. The first is extracted from Van Reenen's Journal, elsewhere referred to:—

“A large male elephant having come up near to the waggons, we instantly pursued and attacked him. After he had received several shots, and had twice fallen, he crept into a very thick thorny underwood. Thinking that we had fully done for him, Tjaart Van der Waldt, Lodewyk Prins, and Ignatius Mulder, advanced to the spot where he was hid; when he rushed out in a furious manner from the thicket, and with his trunk catching hold of Lodewyk Prins, who was then on horseback, trod him to death; and driving one of his tusks through his body, threw him into the air to the distance of thirty feet. The others, perceiving that there was no possibility of escaping on horseback, dismounted, and crept into the thicket to hide themselves. The elephant having nothing now in view but the horse of Van der Waldt, followed it for some time; when he turned about and came to the spot near to where the dead body lay, looking about for it. At this instant, our whole party renewed the attack, in order to drive him from the spot; when, after that he had received several shots, he again escaped into the thickest of the wood. We now thought that he was far enough off, and had already begun to dig a grave for our unfortunate companion, at which we were busily employed, when the elephant rushed out again, and driving us all away, remained by himself there on the spot. Tjaart Van der Waldt got another shot at him, at the distance of an hundred paces. We every one of us then made another attack upon him; and, having now received several more bullets, he began to stagger; then falling, the Hottentots, with a shot or two more, killed him as he lay on the ground.

“The fury of this animal is indescribable. Those of our party who knew any thing of elephant hunting, declared that it was the fleetest and most furious they had ever beheld.

“The Hottentots often told us that the elephants' custom is, when-

hind some rock or bush ; and the animal's vision being defective, though his smell is very acute, it is not very difficult thus to escape his pursuit. In the mean while, the other hunters, ever attacked, never to leave a dead body, until, by piecemeal, they have swallowed the whole carcase ; and that they themselves had seen a Hottentot killed much in the same manner as our friend, of whose body they never could find the least remains. This, probably, would have been the fate of our companion, had we not made so severe an attack on the elephant."—Captain Riou's Translation, p. 39.

This notion of the elephant swallowing the flesh of the person he has killed is quite unfounded ; but it is certain that this animal, when provoked, evinces often violent and inveterate animosity, and will frequently return to trample the body of his victim with his gigantic feet, or to throw it into the air with his trunk. A few years ago, Lieutenant J. Moodie made a very narrow escape while hunting elephants in the woods near Bushman's River. A female that had been fired at, and separated from her young one, rushed upon her assailants, and ran down Mr. Moodie, who luckily stumbled and fell just as she reached him. The elephant attempted to thrust him through, but, having only one tusk, fortunately missed him, and only gave him a severe buffet with her foot in passing over him. Before she could turn to renew the attack, Mr. Moodie contrived to scramble into the bush, and her young one at that instant crying at a little distance, the enraged animal went off without searching for him farther.

The South African male elephant, when fully grown, is said to attain sometimes the enormous height of eighteen feet. This fact has been doubted by some naturalists, but I have heard so many well-authenticated instances of it stated, that I cannot well refuse my belief. The late Colonel Fraser told me that he had once seen one killed which measured upwards of seventeen feet ; and other instances to the same effect have been mentioned to me by Lieutenant Devenish, the late Captain Macombie, and many of the frontier boors.

When I was at Somerset, I learned that Mr. Hart's waggons, while conveying an assortment of English ploughs, machinery, &c., from Algoa Bay through the Zuurberg forests, were attacked by a troop of elephants, the drivers chased away, some of the waggons overturned, and several of the agricultural implements pulled in pieces—as if the mischievous animals had guessed them to be (as they certainly were) portentous of their own extirpation.

while his attention is thus engaged, approach more closely, and pour in their assagais ; and when he turns upon another of them, the same plan is adopted. In this manner they will sometimes carry on their attack upon this gigantic animal for a whole day ; and before he falls, he is often pierced by more than a thousand assagais. Not unfrequently he escapes from them ; and, with all their caution and agility, sometimes avenges himself by the destruction of one or two of his pursuers.

The rhinoceros they hunt in a similar manner ; and though next to the elephant in strength, his far greater stupidity renders him much less dangerous.

For the hippopotamus they dig pits in the river banks, which are slightly covered over, and have a strong stake fixed in the centre ; they then lie in wait for the animal when he comes out to graze, and driving him into the paths where the pits are dug, complete his destruction.

The buffalo, though inferior in size and strength to the three last-named animals, and not so difficult to kill, is much superior to them all in activity and fierceness. In spite, however, of many fatal accidents, the buffalo is often hunted and destroyed by the Caffers.

The lion is hunted with great spirit, and is not very numerous in Cafferland. The manner they adopt is as follows.—A large band go out with their shields and assagais, surround the thicket where he lies concealed, and tease him with their dogs, until he gets irritated, and bursts out of his covert upon the plain. The hunters then fall down and draw their large shields over their bodies. The lion frequently bounds forward, and pounces upon one of them, who, secured by his shield, defies his rage, while the rest at the same moment hurl their javelins and despatch him. Sometimes, however, the lion is too quick for them, or tears the man from under his shield, and kills or mangles him.

LANGUAGE.—The Caffer language is very peculiar, and somewhat difficult to acquire perfectly. Though, like all barbarous dialects, limited in its range, it is very ductile, and capable of innumerable inflections and new combinations,—in this respect resembling the classic rather than our modern European tongues. The following example of the conjugation of a verb will perhaps convey a better notion of its character than a mere list of words or phrases :—

UKUBIZA, TO CALL.

Present.

- Sing.* 1. Diabiza, I call.
 2. Uabiza, Thou callest.
 3. Eabiza, He calls.
- Plur.* 1. Siabiza, We call.
 2. Neabiza, Ye call.
 3. Paiabiza, They call.

Imperfect.

- Sing.* 1. Dibendibiza, I called.
 2. Ubenubiza, Thou calledst.
 3. Ebenebiza, He called.
- Plur.* 1. Sibesibiza, We called.
 2. Nebenebiza, Ye called.
 3. Pebepebiza, They called.

Perfect.

- Sing.* 1. Dabandabiza, I have called.
 2. Uabauabiza, Thou hast called.
 3. Eabaeabiza, He has called.
- Plur.* 1. Sabesabiza, We have called.
 2. Nabenabiza, Ye have called.
 3. Pabepabiza, They have called.

Pluperfect.

- Sing.* 1. Dikandabiza, I had called.
 2. Ukauabiza, Thou hadst called.
 3. Ekeabiza, He had called.

- Plur.* 1. Sikasabiza, We had called.
 2. Nekanabiza, Ye had called.
 3. Pakapabiza, They had called.

Future.

- Sing.* 1. Dobiza, I shall or will call.
 2. Uobiza, Thou shalt call.
 3. Eobiza, He shall call.

- Plur.* 1. Sobiza, We shall call.
 2. Nobiza, Ye shall call.
 3. Pobiza, They shall call.

Potential.

- Sing.* 1. Dingabiza, I may, can, or might call.
 2. Ungabiza, Thou mayst, &c. call.
 3. Engabiza, He may, &c. call.

- Plur.* 1. Singabiza, We may, &c. call.
 2. Nangabiza, Ye may, &c. call.
 3. Pangabiza, They may, &c. call.

Imperative.

- Sing.* 1. Mandibiza, Let me call.
 2. Mäubiza, Do thou call.
 3. Mäebiza, Let him call.

- Plur.* 1. Masibiza, Let us call.
 2. Manibiza, Do ye call.
 3. Mabibiza, Let them call.

Passive Form.

- Sing.* 1. Dibizwe, I am called.
 2. Ubizwe, Thou art called.
 3. Ebizwe, He is called.

- Plur.* 1. Sibizwe, We are called.
 2. Nebizwe, Ye are called.
 3. Pabizwe, They are called.

A verb is put into the interrogative, by affixing the syllable *na*, as *Dibizena*, Do I call?—and it assumes the negative form as follows:—

Present.

Andibiza, I call not.

Akubiza, Thou callest not.

Asibiza, We call not.

Nosibiza, Ye call not.

Pakabiza, They call not.

Perfect.

Andibizanga, I have not called.

Passive.

Andibizwanga, I was not called.

A verb receives a prefix corresponding with the first letter or syllable of its nominative; as *Hamba*, to go; *Untana uahamba*, the child goes; *Indodo ihamba*, the man goes; *Ihassi iahamba*, the horse goes; *Inkobo ihamba*, the ox goes; *Zinkobo ziahamba*, the oxen go, &c.

All adjectives and adverbs undergo the same variations, partaking of the prefixes of the substantives conjoined with them. The nouns have also diminutives analogous to the *je* in Dutch; as *Indodo*, a man; *Indodona*, a little man.*

To the above specimens I add the Lord's Prayer, with a literal translation, to afford some idea of the construction and idiom of the language:—

Bāo	wētu	osizulīne ;	ilāku	gāma	ilinquēile ;
Father	our	in Heaven	his	name	be holy
amānhla	ukūza	kuāku	makūlu ;	yenza	gokuāku,
power	come	his	greatly	be done	his will
noko	zisulīne	noko zesuīne ;	nāmhla	tīna	sēpe
as in	heaven	so in earth	to-day	us	give
sonka	umhlāna-yonka ;	zisūzi	zona	zetu,	
bread	daily	take away	sins	our	
zekinkēle	zona	zaba ;	zelondolos,	uqosyekēle	
as we forgive	the sins	of others	preserve us	lead us not	
izonezētu ;	usikulūli	umsīnda ;	akandaūnios,		
into temptation	deliver us	from evil	thine the greatness		
amanhla	asinkosīne,	napakāte	napakāte.	Amen.	
the power	and the glory	for ever	and ever		

* See also Lichtenstein's remarks on this curious dialect in the Appendix to his Travels.

[The following specimen of Amakosa poetry is derived from another quarter. It is part of a hymn composed by a secondary chief, named Sicana, who formerly resided on the Kat River, and was converted to Christianity by the late Missionary, Mr. Williams. It may serve to convey some notion of the mellifluous flow of this interesting language, and of their oriental style of expression; but it is, of course, in a very different strain from their ordinary songs, which, when they have any meaning, are confined to the subjects of war and hunting.—G. T.]

*Sicana's Hymn.**Free Translation.*

Ulin guba inkulu siambata tina,	He who is our mantle of comfort,
Ulodali bom' uadali pezula,	The giver of life, ancient on high,
Umdala uadala idala izula,	He is the Creator of the Heavens,
Yebinza inquiquis zixeliela :	And the ever-burning stars :
UTIKA umkula gozizulinè,	GOD is mighty in the heavens,
Yebinza inquiquis nozilimele.	And whirls the stars around the sky.
Umze uakonana subizièle,	We call on him in his dwelling-place
Umkokeli ua sikokeli tina,	That he may be our mighty leader,
Uenze infama zenza ga bomi ;	For he maketh the blind to see ;
Imali inkula subizièle,	We adore him as the only good,
Wena wena q'aba inyaniza,	For he alone is a sure defence,
Wena wena kaka linyaniza,	He alone is a trusty shield,
Wena wena klati linyaniza :	He alone is our bush of refuge :
Ulodali bom' uadali pezula,	Even HE,—the giver of life on high,
Umdala uadala idala izula.	Who is the Creator of the heavens.

DESCRIPTION OF THE COUNTRY, &c.*—The country of the Amakosæ towards the north is bounded by high mountains.

* Mr. Brownlee has given a minute description of the Amakosa territory, and its mineral and vegetable productions, as observed by him upon a journey from the Chumi to the residence of Hinza, beyond the Great Kei; but this being too minute and voluminous for my present purpose, I have extracted only such passages as appeared most curious and interesting, and which were calculated at the same time to convey a general idea of the appearance of the country.

The first range is properly the termination of the Boschberg ridge; the second the termination of the Winterberg. Beyond these the country towards the north does not again fall abruptly, but runs out into extensive grassy plains, or tracts of table land, destitute of wood, but pretty well supplied with springs and *vleys* of water. These plains are only occasionally or partially inhabited by the Tambookies and Bushmen, and are well stocked with large game, such as gnoots, bonteboks, springboks, &c.

On the south side the mountains descend abruptly, and are well stocked with timber. The soil near their skirts is a heavy clay loam, evidently formed by the decomposition of the argillaceous substratum of the higher land. As you recede from the heights towards the sea coast the country flattens; and there are no other mountains south of the chains I have mentioned, except those at the source of the Buffalo River.

There is no great variety of minerals in Cafferland. The high mountains are mostly composed of trap, and the smaller hills of sandstone and clay. Globular trap, serpentine, aluminous schistus, and ironstone, are found throughout the country. Limestone is only seen on the coast, and there not in abundance.

The water near the mountains is well-tasted. In the middle of the country the fountains are somewhat brackish, and occasionally tainted with sulphuric impregnations.

Between the Chumi and Keiskamma the country along the foot of the mountains is well watered, and particularly adapted for cultivation. The high mountains behind, clothed with wood, attract the clouds, and occasion frequent falls of rain. There are a great number of rivulets which issue from the ravines along the sides of the mountains, and water delightful little valleys, which are in many places adorned with large timber. The Chumi River, from near its source to

where it falls into the Keiskamma, is thickly inhabited, the pasture being the best throughout the whole of Gaika's territory.

Near the Zolacha stream, we found a curious specimen of Caffer chronology. It was a small inclosure, formed by palisades, in the centre of which were planted two stems of the *Euphorbia Arborea*. This was in commemoration of the birth of twins; which the Caffers consider an event exceedingly propitious, and during the infancy of the children, nothing eatable must be carried from the kraal.

About twenty miles from the coast the aspect of the country changes, being more uneven, and abounding with small ridges, covered with straggling shrubbery. In all the valleys is found running water, which, though generally of a brackish quality, is not so much so as to be unpleasant to drink. Almost without exception along the rivulets there is a low tract of rich level land, which is clothed in many places with groves of large timber, consisting of the yellow wood, the asagai, and iron wood, and diversified with the *Erythrina Caffra*, (or coral-tree), and a species of wild fig, which is also found in some parts of Albany. This tract of country (Congo's territory) is generally well adapted for cultivation.

Congo and Pato live together, and Habanna has his kraal a little higher up the river. The country here is very populous. Congo and Pato are brothers. The former is the elder, but his mother not being a woman of rank, he cannot, according to the Amakosa customs, succeed to the chieftainship. He has, since the death of old Congo, (so well known on the frontier,) acted as regent in his brother's minority; and though Pato is now come of age, he generally deposes Congo to act on all important occasions, such as holding conferences with the other chiefs, or the British officers on the frontier, &c. The two brothers seem to live in a very good understanding, and to act with great unanimity.

While waiting here a large concourse of people came together to hear what they emphatically term “the great word;” and we embraced the opportunity to speak to them on the being and perfections of God, on our responsibility to him as reasonable creatures, and on a few other of the leading truths of religion. At every kraal we visited, we were always, without exception, listened to with great attention; and in the conversations that sometimes ensued, and the questions they put to us, the Caffers displayed very considerable intellect.

The River Kalumna is narrow at its mouth, being not more, apparently, than fifty yards across; but it appears deep, and the tide flows about ten miles up its channel. Its breadth for that distance is generally from 100 to 200 yards. It has beautiful windings, and on both sides are extensive tracts of rich flat land. In some places are steep rocky banks, covered with wood, overhanging the water. Here we saw considerable numbers of hippopotami. There is also abundance of fish in this river, and indeed in the mouths of all the rivers, and generally along the coast; but they are of no use to the inhabitants, for the Caffers do not eat fish,—regarding them as unclean.

The rocks along the beach at this part are composed entirely of sandstone, with none of those calcareous incrustations so common on many parts of the colonial coast. In the rocks along this river there appear fossil remains, apparently shells, the cavities of which are filled with oxide of iron. On the side of the river, near its mouth, there is a horizontal stratum nearly level with the water: this has the same texture, and appears to be the same in its component parts as the American millstone.

The country to the east of the Kalumna is more elevated, and well supplied with good water in the numerous ravines, and valleys, and is full of inhabitants.

On approaching the Buffalo River, the country is fertile and well stored with large timber, which is pleasantly scattered in picturesque clumps, even over the highest ground. In some places you find the small ridges composed of a fine red ferruginous clay, beneath which is a bed of limestone; but this is not very common. We crossed the Buffalo River about two miles from the sea, where it was about forty yards broad. The banks are high and rocky, and covered with a great variety of trees and shrubs.

On the north-east side the country presents a great deal of beautiful scenery; and here are found also a greater variety of vegetable productions: among others, I observed several varieties of the acacia, and the *zamia*, or sago palm, called by Barrow the bread-fruit tree. On the Gunubi River I found a species of the *strelitzia* surpassing all the others in the beauty of its foliage. The whole exterior of this plant is so like the *musa*, that it can hardly be distinguished from it. The seeds are much larger than those of the *regina*, and are very palatable when roasted. The leaves grow to about six feet in height, including the puteolus; and the foliated part is about three feet in height and two in breadth. I had not an opportunity of seeing this fine plant in flower, but from what I could learn, it much resembles the above-mentioned species. I saw also a number of shrubs which I had not found in the Colony.

Between the Ikuku River and the Kei, the whole country is covered with large blocks of globular trap-stone, interspersed with the acacia. The soil is a rich black loam, evidently produced from a decomposition of the above stone. There is great abundance of grass, and water of the best quality, and the land is well adapted for cultivation.

The country north-east of the Kei is exceedingly well watered. In every little valley is found a rivulet of good water. The beds of many of the rivulets are shallow, and

overgrown with aquatic plants, and at the sources of almost all of them there are groves of large timber.

About ten miles from Hinza's kraal, there is an extensive quarry of iron ore, which the Caffers dig for painting their bodies. This substance is found in nodular masses of yellow ironstone, or indurated clay. It is found only near the surface, and in pieces seldom larger than a hen's egg. A space of about half an acre had been dug up in the course of the season.

INTERVIEW WITH HINZA.—On our arrival at Hinza's kraal, we were told that the chief could not at present see us, not having been apprised of our visit until we were close to the kraal. They had some apprehension that we were followed by an armed force, for the whole of the men were prepared for resistance, each sitting with a bundle of assagais beside him, eyeing us attentively, without saying a word. However, after we had explained who we were, and the object of our visit, they seemed to lay aside their suspicions; and after some time spent in private consultation, one of the chief men told us we might unsaddle our horses, and allotted us a large empty hut to put our baggage in. About an hour after dark, Hinza sent a messenger to say that he was very much obliged to us for our visit, and that he had sent to call together some of his chief men, in order to have a meeting with us next day, and hear what we had to say.

We observed that Hinza's hut was distinguished (according to the Caffer fashion) by having the tail of an elephant fixed to a pole erected beside it.

In the morning Hinza again sent a message, saying that, if convenient, he would now wait upon us; and in a short time he came, attended by about twenty persons. We explained to him the object of our visit, namely, to inquire whether he and his people were willing to receive a missionary. He said

he was desirous that we should remain another day at his kraal, in order that a number of his other counsellors and chief men who were at a distance might come and judge for themselves. The arrangements we had made did not admit of this delay, but we staid till the evening, and explained to the Chief, and the people who were with him, some of the leading truths of revealed religion, to which they listened with great attention. Afterwards Hinza asked a number of questions relative to what he had heard from us. The following were a few of them. "At what period was the Christian religion first propagated in the world?" "To what extent is it at present professed?" "Has it been received by a whole nation?" and "what influence has it had on the conduct of men?" To each of these we returned suitable answers. He then declared himself pleased with all that we had said; but still expressed his regret that several of his wisest and most respected counsellors had not had an opportunity of hearing us. We said that we would endeavour to pay him another visit ere long, and would send him previous notice of it, in order that all his principal people might attend. Before we departed, Hinza presented us with a fine ox, which he insisted on our accepting, without receiving any present in return.

Hinza is the principal hereditary chief of the Amakosa nation, and as such he is acknowledged by all the different tribes; but his authority extends only over the people residing in his own territory. His subjects are more numerous than those of Gaika, and he appears to be more respected, and more firmly established in his government. He is but a young man, not exceeding thirty-five years of age, with a robust and muscular frame, and an open and cheerful countenance. His principal wife is a daughter of the most powerful of the Tambookie Chiefs.

At Hinza's kraal we found a few people residing, who had

come from a tribe lying to the north-west of Lattakoo. They had been a good while in this country; and from the great similarity both of their personal appearance and their language to that of the Caffers, it is evident they are originally of the same race; but I could not clearly ascertain whether they belong to the Bechuana or Damara tribes.

No. II.

NOTICES AND ANECDOTES OF THE AFRICAN LION.

BESIDES the occasional notices of the lion interspersed in my narrative, I had collected a number of hunting anecdotes, with the view of inserting a separate chapter on the subject, partly with a view to the illustration of the character and habits of this noble animal, and partly by way of entertainment to the lovers of light reading;—but finding that my friend Mr. Pringle has anticipated me in this purpose, and the work having already swelled beyond the size I had intended, I shall content myself (and I trust the reader also) by the insertion of Mr. P.'s amusing notices, with only a very few of my own collection as supplementary illustrations. The majority of these anecdotes have been already printed in a Cape periodical work, but they are probably not the less novel on that account to the English reader. G. T.

Two varieties of the lion are found in South Africa, namely, the yellow and the brown; or, (as the Dutch Colonists often term the latter,) the blue or black lion. The dark coloured species is commonly esteemed the strongest and fiercest. I doubt, however, whether there is any real specific distinction,

although some lion-hunters enumerate no less than four varieties; for the mere difference in size and colour may be either altogether accidental, or the consequence of a variation of food and climate in different districts.

The lions in the Bushmen's country, beyond the limits of the Colony, are accounted peculiarly fierce and dangerous. This is doubtless owing to their unacquaintance with civilized man,—the possessor of the formidable *roer* or rifle,—and still more perhaps to their instinctive awe of mankind having been extinguished by successful rencounters with the poor natives. It is said, that when the lion has once tasted human flesh, he thenceforth entirely loses his natural awe of human superiority: and it is asserted, that when he has once succeeded in snatching some unhappy wretch from a Bushman kraal, he never fails to return regularly every night in search of another meal; and often harasses them so dreadfully as to force the horde to desert their station. From apprehensions of such nocturnal attacks, some of these wretched hordes are said to be in the habit of placing their aged and infirm nearest the entrance of the cave or covert where they usually sleep, in order that the least valuable may first fall a prey, and serve as a ransom for the rest.

The prodigious strength of this animal does not appear to have been overrated. It is certain, that he can drag the heaviest ox with ease a considerable way; and a horse, heifer, hartebeest, or lesser prey, he finds no difficulty in throwing upon his shoulder and carrying off to any distance he may find convenient. I have myself witnessed an instance of a very young lion conveying a horse about a mile from the spot where he had killed it; and a more extraordinary case, which occurred in the Sneeuwberg, has been mentioned to me on good authority, where a lion, having carried off a heifer of two years old, was followed on the *spoor* or track for fully five hours, by a party on horseback, and throughout the

whole distance, the carcase of the heifer was only once or twice discovered to have touched the ground.* Many examples, not less remarkable, might easily be added, which would fully prove the lion to be by far the strongest and most active animal, in proportion to his size, that is known to exist.

Mr. Barrow has represented the lion of South Africa, as a cowardly and treacherous animal, always lurking in covert for his prey, and scampering off in shame and fear if he misses his first spring. I apprehend, that that intelligent traveller has in this, as in some other instances, been led to draw an erroneous conclusion by reasoning too hastily from limited experience or inaccurate information. The lion, it is true, not less now than in ancient times, usually "lurketh privily in secret places," and "lieth in wait" to spring suddenly and without warning upon his prey. This is the general characteristic of every variety of the feline tribe to which he belongs; and for this mode of hunting alone has Nature fitted them. The wolf and hound are furnished with a keener scent and untiring swiftness of foot to run down their game. The lion and leopard are only capable of extraordinary speed for a short space; and if they fail to seize their prey at the first spring, or after a few ardent and amazing bounds, they naturally abandon the pursuit from the consciousness of being unequal to continue it successfully. The lion springs from nine to twelve yards at a single leap, and for a brief space can repeat these bounds with such activity and speed, as to outstrip the swiftest horse in a short chase; but he cannot hold out at this rate in a long pursuit, and seldom attempts it. The Monarch of the Forest is, in fact, merely a gigantic cat, and

* Sparrman relates the following, among other instances of the lion's strength :—"A lion was once seen at the Cape to take a heifer in his mouth; and though the legs of the latter dragged on the ground, yet he seemed to carry her off with the same ease as a cat does a rat. He likewise leaped over a broad dike with her, without the least difficulty."

he must live by using the arts of a cat. He would have but a poor chance with the antelopes, were he always magnanimously to begin a-roaring whenever a herd approached his lair. He knows his business better, and generally couches among the rank grass or reeds that grow around the pools and fountains, or in the narrow ravines through which the larger game descend to drink at the rivers ;—and in such places one may most commonly find the horns and bones of the animals which have been thus surprised and devoured by him.

Even in such places, it is said, he will generally retreat before the awe-inspiring presence of Man—but not precipitately, nor without first calmly surveying his demeanour and apparently measuring his prowess. He appears to have the impression, that man is not his natural prey ; and though he does not always give place to him, he will yet in almost every case abstain from attacking him, if he observes in his deportment neither terror nor hostility. But this instinctive deference is not to be counted upon under other circumstances, nor even under such as now described, with entire security. If he is hungry, or angry,—or if he be watching the game he has killed, or is otherwise perturbed by rage or jealousy,—it is no jest to encounter him. If he assumes a hostile aspect, the traveller must elevate his gun and take aim at the animal's forehead, before he comes close up and couches to take his spring ; for in that position, though he may possibly give way to firmness and self-possession, he will tolerate no offensive movement, and will anticipate by an instant and overwhelming bound, any attempt then to take aim at him. These observations are advanced not in the confidence of my own slight experience, but upon the uniform testimony of many of the back-country Boors and Hottentots with whom I have often conversed on such subjects, to dissipate the ennui of a dreary journey, or an evening *outspann* in the interior.

My friend, Diederik Muller, one of the most intrepid and successful lion-hunters in South Africa, mentioned to me the following incident, in illustration of the foregoing remarks.—He had been out alone hunting in the wilds, when he came suddenly upon a lion, which, instead of giving way, seemed disposed, from the angry attitude he assumed, to dispute with him the dominion of the desert. Diederik instantly alighted, and confident of his unerring aim, levelled his mighty *roer* at the forehead of the lion, who was couched in the act to spring, within fifteen paces of him: but at the moment the hunter fired, his horse, whose bridle was round his arm, started back, and caused him to miss. The lion bounded forward—but stopped within a few paces, confronting Diederik,—who stood defenceless, his gun discharged, and his horse running off. The man and the beast stood looking each other in the face, for a short space. At length the lion moved backward, as if to go away. Diederik began to load his gun: the lion looked over his shoulder, growled, and returned. Diederik stood still. The lion again moved cautiously off; and the boor proceeded to load, and ram down his bullet. The lion again looked back and growled angrily: and this occurred repeatedly until the animal had got off to some distance,—when he took fairly to his heels, and bounded away.

This was not the only nor the most dangerous adventure of Diederik Muller with the monarch of the wilderness. On another occasion, a lion came so suddenly upon him, that before he could take aim, the animal made his formidable spring, and alighted so near the hunter, that he had just space to thrust the muzzle of his gun into his open jaws and shoot him through the head.

Diederik and his brother Christian generally hunt in company; and have (between them) killed upwards of thirty

lions. They have not achieved this, however, without many hair-breadth escapes, and have more than once saved each other's lives. On one of these occasions, a lion sprang suddenly upon Diederik, from behind a stone,—bore man and horse to the ground, and was proceeding to finish his career, when Christian galloped up and shot the savage through the heart. In this encounter Diederik was so roughly handled, that he lost his hearing in one ear,—the lion having dug his talons deeply into it.*

The Bechuana Chief, old Teysho, conversing with me while in Cape Town about the wild animals of Africa, made some remarks on the lion which perfectly correspond with the accounts I have obtained from the Boors and Hottentots.—The lion, he said, very seldom attacks man if unprovoked; but he will frequently approach within a few paces and survey him steadily; and sometimes he will attempt to get behind him, as if he could not stand his look, but was yet desirous of springing upon him unawares. If a person in such circumstances attempts either to fight or fly he incurs the most imminent peril; but if he has sufficient presence of mind coolly to confront him, the animal will in almost every instance, after a little space, retire. But, he added, when a lion has once conquered man, he becomes tenfold more fierce and villanous than he was before, and will even come into the kraals in search of him, in preference to other prey. This epicure partiality to human flesh in these too-knowing lions, does not, in Teysho's opinion, spring either from necessity or appetite, so much as from the "native wickedness of their hearts!"

* This is the same adventurous individual who is mentioned at page 379, vol. i. as about to set out with Mr. Rennie (his *fides Achates*) on an expedition to Delagoa Bay. When Mr. Pringle left the eastern frontier in 1825, Diederik Muller went out and shot a lion, and sent him the skin and skull as a parting present.

The overmastering effect of the human eye upon the lion has been frequently mentioned, though much doubted by travellers. But from my own inquiries among lion-hunters, I am perfectly satisfied of the fact: and an anecdote which was related to me a few days ago by Major Macintosh, (late of the East India Company's Service,) proves that this fascinating effect is not confined exclusively to the lion. An officer in India, (whose name I have forgotten, but who was well known to my informant,) having chanced to ramble into a jungle adjoining the British encampment, suddenly encountered a royal tiger. The rencounter appeared equally unexpected on both sides, and both parties made a dead halt—earnestly gazing on each other. The gentleman had no fire-arms, and was aware that a sword would be no effective defence in a struggle for life with such an antagonist. But he had heard, that even the Bengal tiger might be sometimes checked by looking him firmly in the face. He did so. In a few minutes the tiger, which appeared preparing to take his fatal spring, grew disturbed—slunk aside—and attempted to creep round upon him behind. The officer turned constantly upon the tiger,—which still continued to shrink from his glance;—but darting into the thicket and again issuing forth at a different quarter, it persevered for above an hour in this attempt to catch him by surprise; till at last it fairly yielded the contest, and left the gentleman to pursue his *pleasure walk*. The direction he now took, as may be easily believed, was straight to the tents at double-quick time.

Poor Gert Schepers, a Vee-Boor of the Cradock District, was less fortunate in an encounter with a South African lion. Gert was out hunting in company with a neighbour,—whose name, as he is yet alive, and has perhaps been sufficiently punished, I shall not make more notorious. Coming to a fountain, surrounded, as is common, with tall reeds and rushes, Gert handed his gun to his comrade, and alighted to search.

for water. But he no sooner approached the fountain, than an enormous lion started up close at his side, and seized him by the left arm. The man, though taken by surprise, stood stock still without struggling, aware that the least attempt to escape would ensure his instant destruction. The animal also remained motionless, holding fast the boor's arm in his fangs, but without biting it severely,—and shutting his eyes at the same time, as if he could not withstand the countenance of his victim. As they stood in this position, Gert, collecting his presence of mind, began to beckon to his comrade to advance and shoot the lion in the forehead. This might have been easily effected, as the animal not only continued still with closed eyes, but Gert's body concealed from his notice any object advancing in front of him. But the fellow was a vile poltroon, and in place of complying with his friend's directions or making any other attempt to save him, he began cautiously to retreat to the top of a neighbouring rock. Gert continued earnestly to beckon for assistance for a long time, the lion continuing perfectly quiet:—and the lion-hunters affirm, that if he had but persevered a little longer, the animal would have at length relaxed his hold, and left him uninjured. Such cases at least, they maintain, have occasionally occurred. But Gert, indignant at the pusillanimity of his comrade, and losing patience with the lion, at last drew his knife, (a weapon which every back-country colonist wears sheathed at his side,) and with the utmost force of his right arm, plunged it into the animal's breast. The thrust was a deadly one, for Gert was a bold and powerful man; but it did not prove effectual in time to save his own life,—for the enraged savage, striving to grapple with him, and held at arms length by the utmost efforts of Gert's strength and desperation, so dreadfully lacerated the breast and arms of the unfortunate man with his talons, that his bare bones were laid open. The lion fell at last from loss of blood, and Gert fell along with him. The

cowardly companion who had witnessed this fearful struggle from the rock, now, however, took courage to advance, and succeeded in carrying his mangled friend to the nearest house, —where such surgical aid as the neighbours could give was immediately, but vainly applied. Poor Gert expired on the third day after of a locked jaw. The particulars of this story were related to me by my late neighbour, old Wentzel Koetzer, of the Tarka, and by other respectable farmers in that vicinity, to whom both Schepers and his friend were well known.

The circumstances of an occurrence, which was related to me in the Landdrost's house, at Beaufort in the Nieuwveld, are very similar to the preceding, though not equally tragical. A boor of that district, of the name of De Clercq, one day riding over his farm, had alighted in a difficult pass, and was leading his horse through the long grass, when a lion suddenly rose up before him at a few yards' distance. He had in his hand only a light fowling-piece, loaded with slugs; and hoping that the beast would give way, he stood still and confronted him, (the plan universally recommended in such emergencies;) but the lion on the contrary advancing and crouching to spring, he found himself under the necessity of firing. He took a hurried aim at the forehead, but the slugs lodged in the breast, and did not prove instantly mortal. The furious animal sprang forward, and seizing De Clercq on either side with his talons, bit at the same time his arm almost in two, as he mechanically thrust it forward to save his face. In this position he held him a few seconds, till his strength failing from loss of blood, the lion tumbled over, dragging the boor along with him in a dying embrace. De Clercq, however, escaped without any fatal injury, and had recovered, and visited Beaufort a few days before I was there in 1822.

The hero of the following story is a Hottentot of the Agter

Sneeuwberg. I have forgotten his name, but he was alive two years ago, when the story was related to me at Cradock, in that neighbourhood. This man was out hunting, and perceiving an antelope feeding among some bushes, he approached in a creeping posture, and had rested his gun over an ant-hill to take a steady aim, when, observing that the creature's attention was suddenly and peculiarly excited by some object near him, he looked up and perceived with horror that an enormous lion was at that instant creeping forward and ready to spring upon himself. Before he could change his posture, and direct his aim upon this antagonist, the savage beast bounded forward, seized him with his talons, and crushed his left hand, as he endeavoured to guard him off with it, between his monstrous jaws. In this extremity the Hottentot had the presence of mind to turn the muzzle of the gun, which he still held in his right hand, into the lion's mouth, and then drawing the trigger, shot him dead through the brain. He lost his hand, but happily escaped without farther injury.

The following anecdote was told me by Lucas van Vuuren, a Vee-Boor, residing on the late Colonel Graham's farm of Lyndoch, and for two years my next neighbour at the Bavian's River. It shows that even our Colonial lions, when pressed for a breakfast, will sometimes forget their usual respect for "Christian-men," and break through their general rule of "let-a-be for let-a-be." Lucas was riding across the open plains, near the Little Fish River, one morning about daybreak, and, observing a lion at a distance, he endeavoured to avoid him by making a wide circuit. There were thousands of springboks scattered over the extensive flats; but the lion, from the open nature of the country, had probably been unsuccessful in hunting. Lucas soon perceived at least that he was not disposed to let *him* pass without farther parlance, and that he was rapidly approaching to the encoun-

ter ; and being without his *roer*, and otherwise little inclined to any closer acquaintance, he turned off at right angles—laid the sjambok freely to his horse's flank—and galloped for life. But it was too late. The horse was fagged and bore a heavy man on his back—the lion was fresh and furious with hunger, and came down upon him like a thunderbolt. In a few seconds he overtook, and springing up behind Lucas, brought horse and man in an instant to the ground. Luckily the poor boor was unhurt, and the lion was too eager in worrying the horse, to pay any immediate attention to the rider. Hardly knowing himself how he escaped, he contrived to scramble out of the fray, and made a clean pair of heels of it till he reached the nearest house. Lucas, when he gave me the details of this adventure, made no observations on it as being any way remarkable, except in the circumstance of the lion's audacity in pursuing a "Christian-man," without provocation, in open day. But what chiefly vexed him in the affair was the loss of the *saddle*. He returned next day with a party of friends to search for it and take vengeance on his feline foe : but both the lion and saddle had disappeared, and nothing could be found but the horse's clean picked bones. Lucas said he could excuse the *schelm* for killing the horse, as he had allowed himself to get away, but the felonious abstraction of the saddle (for which, as Lucas gravely observed, he could have no possible use,) raised his spleen mightily, and called down a shower of curses whenever he told the story of this hair-breadth escape.*

* That the lion sometimes forgets his usual respect for "Christen-Mensch," will farther appear from the following instances:—

Once when Captain Stockenstrom was out on an expedition beyond the boundaries of the Colony, with a large party of boors, and twenty-seven waggons, they saw no less than seventeen lions in one evening ; and in the ensuing night, while travelling across the plains, the whole party were thrown into the greatest confusion by the tremendous roar

Amongst other peculiarities ascribed to the lion, is his supposed propensity to prey on black men in preference to white, when he has the choice; or, as the Cape boors explain it, his discretion in refraining from the flesh of "*Christen-mensch*," when "*Hottentot volk*" are to be come at. The fact of this preference, so strongly alleged, need not be disputed; but I am inclined to account for it on somewhat different grounds from those usually assigned. The lion, like most other beasts of prey, is directed to his game by the scent as well as by the eye. Now the *odour* of the woolly-haired races of men, and especially of the Hottentot in his wild or semi-barbarous state, "unkempt, unwashed, unshaven," is peculiarly strong,—as every one, who has sat behind a Hottentot waggon-driver, with the breeze in his nostrils, knows right well. The lion, prowling round after night-fall in search of a supper, is naturally allured by the pungent effluvia, steaming for miles down the wind—equally attractive to him as the scent of a savoury beef-steak to a hungry traveller. He cautiously approaches—finds the devoted wretch

of a lion in the midst of them. In an instant all the oxen in the waggons started off in terror,—causing dreadful consternation and disaster. Some of the waggons were overturned, and the persons in them severely hurt; and several of the poor Hottentots who were leading the teams of oxen, were run down and killed. With great difficulty the waggons were collected, and the oxen unyoked and tied to the wheels, and every precaution taken to secure them that circumstances admitted of. Yet before morning the lions again attacked them, and carried off some of the oxen who were thus fastened.

Mr. Freyer, an Englishman settled at the Hantam, mentioned to me, that once when he was travelling with a party through some part of the Bushman country with waggons, they were attacked, while outspanned, by several lions; and though the Hottentots fired at the ravenous beasts, and also threw pieces of burning wood at them, one of them audaciously tore away a horse which was tied to a waggon-wheel, and afterwards a second,—which he carried off with the greatest apparent ease to his companions at a little distance.

G. T.

fast asleep under a bush—and feels it impossible to resist keen appetite and convenient opportunity. He seizes on the strong-scented Hottentot, while the less tempting boor is left unnoticed, perhaps reclined at a little distance, with his feet to the fire, or within or under his waggon. The following anecdotes, illustrative of these remarks, were told me by old Jacob Marè, (my fellow traveller across the Great Karroo in 1822,) who knew the parties personally.

A farmer of the name of Van der Merwe had outspanned his waggon in the wilderness, and laid himself down to repose by the side of it. His two Hottentot servants, a man and his wife, had disposed themselves on their ready couch of sand, at the other side. At midnight, when all were fast asleep, a lion came quietly up and carried off the poor woman in his mouth. Her master and her husband, startled by her fearful shrieks, sprang to their guns,—but without avail. Favoured by the darkness, the monster had conveyed, in a few minutes, his unfortunate victim far into the thickets, beyond the possibility of rescue.

A Hottentot at Jackal's Fountain, on the skirts of the Great Karroo, had a narrow though ludicrous escape on a similar occasion. He was sleeping a few yards from his master, in the usual mode of his nation, wrapped up in his sheep-skin *carosse*, with his face to the ground. A lion came softly up, and seizing him by the thick folds of his greasy mantle, began to trot away with him, counting securely no doubt on a savoury and satisfactory meal. But the Hottentot, on awaking, being quite unhurt, though sufficiently astonished, contrived somehow to wriggle himself out of his wrapper, and scrambled off, while the disappointed lion walked simply away with the empty integument.*

* An incident much resembling this was witnessed by a gentleman of my own acquaintance. Travelling through a jungle on the borders of the Colony, a lion suddenly sprang upon a Hottentot of his party,

Numerous stories of a similar description are related by the back-country farmers, and many of them sufficiently well authenticated to prove the general fact of the lion's curious taste for "people of colour;" but I suspect there is also some degree of exaggeration about the matter, which will not fail to be exposed whenever we get the lion's, or at least the Hottentot's "own account" of these transactions.

The following amusing story, which was related to me by some respectable farmers of the Tarka, who were present on the occasion, would make a good figure in "The Lion's History of the Man." A party of boors went out to hunt a lion which had carried off several cattle from the neighbourhood. They discovered him in a thicket, or jungle, such as abound in that part of the Colony, and sent in a numerous pack of fierce hounds to drive him out. The lion kept his den and his temper for a long time—only striking down the dogs with his mighty paw, or snapping off a head or leg occasionally, when the brawling rabble came within his reach. But the hunters, continuing in the mean while to pepper the bush at random with slugs and bullets, at length wounded him slightly. Then rose the royal beast in wrath—and with a dreadful roar burst forth upon his foes. Regardless of a shower of balls, he bounded forward, and in an instant turned the chase upon them. All took to their horses or their heels—it was "devil take the hindmost!" One huge fellow, of greater size than alacrity, whom we shall call *Hugo Zwaar-van-heupen* (or

and brought man and horse with a shock to the ground. At the same moment, placing one paw upon the head of the horse, and another on that of the Hottentot, he looked round upon the rest of the party, (who had recoiled with terror,) in an attitude of pride and defiance. In the mean while the Hottentot, who had been merely stunned, but not hurt, recovering his presence of mind, contrived to slip his head gently out of his old hat, and crawled away to his companions, unmolested by the lion, who, contented with the prey in his possession, remained master of the field.

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Hercules Heavy-stern), not having time to mount his horse, was left in the rear, and speedily run down by the rampant *Leeuw*. Hugo fell—not as Lochiel, “with his back to the field, and his face to the foe,”—but the reverse way; and he had the prudence to lie flat and quiet as a log. The victorious *Leeuw* snuffed at him, scratched him with his paw, and then magnanimously bestriding him, sat quietly down upon his body. His routed companions, collecting in a band, took courage at length to face about; and, seeing the posture of affairs, imagined their comrade was killed, and began to concert measures for revenging him. After a short pause, however, the lion resigned of his own accord his seat of triumph, relieved his panting captive, and retreated towards the mountains. The party, on coming up, found their friend shaking his ears, unharmed from the war—except what he had suffered from a very ungentlemanly piece of conduct in the lion, who it seems had actually treated his prostrate foe in the same ignominious sort as Gulliver did the palace of Lilliput on a certain occasion, and for which he was afterwards justly impeached of high treason. This story continues to be repeated as one of the standing jokes of the Tarka.*

* The Boor Vlok, whom I have mentioned at page 391, vol. i. told me that he had made two very narrow escapes from the jaws of the lion. One of these occurred when he was out with a party collected to destroy a lion which had committed great ravages in the vicinity. The lion, after being fired on, turned upon the hunters,—and Vlok (according to his *own* account) alone standing firm, was pounced upon by him, and so severely mangled in the left arm and side, that he did not recover until after long doctoring and attending the hot-baths at Oliphant’s River. The lion might easily have killed him, he said, as his comrades sneaked off,—but after worrying him for a few minutes, he left him of his own accord.

On another occasion, he says, a lion sprang upon him unexpectedly, from behind a small height, and bearing him and horse to the ground, killed the horse as easily as a cat would a mouse; but Vlok being partly

The following occurrence is another evidence of the lion's general forbearance towards mankind, so long as other prey can be got. Three butchers' servants were crossing the Great Karroo ; and having halted near a fountain with the intention of resting for the night, two of them went to collect firewood, the other remaining to knee-halter the horses, as is usual, to prevent them from straying. Whilst he was thus occupied, three lions suddenly made their appearance, and selecting each a horse, brought down in an instant the two that were haltered ; the third horse, breaking loose from a bush to which he was tied, galloped off, with the third lion in chase of him. Of the two successful lions, one carried off his prey into the thicket, while the other, lying down beside his, watched the man, who, half stupified by the havoc, now began to think of making his retreat. But as soon as he moved, the lion began to growl and bristle up in a threatening attitude ; lying quietly down again, however, when he stood still. After several timid attempts, thus checked by his watchful adversary, he judged it advisable to remain stationary till his comrades returned. They did so soon after, and the lion, on seeing this reinforcement, resigned his prey, and hastily retired.

I shall conclude these notices of this animal, (which, whether of any value or not, are at least sufficiently well authenticated,) with some account of a Lion Hunt which I witnessed myself in April 1822. I was then residing on my farm or location at Bavian's River, in the neighbourhood of which numerous herds of large game, and consequently beasts of prey, are abundant. One night a lion, who had previously purloined a few sheep out of the kraal, came down and killed my

under the horse, escaped with a severe bruising,—for the victor, after a brief space, (having perhaps already dined) walked off, without taking farther notice of the rider, G. T.

riding horse, about a hundred yards from the door of my cabin. Knowing that the lion, when he does not carry off his prey, usually conceals himself in the vicinity, and is moreover very apt to be dangerous by prowling about the place in search of more game, I resolved to have him destroyed or dislodged without delay. I therefore sent a messenger round the location to invite all who were willing to assist in the *foray*, to repair to the place of rendezvous as speedily as possible. In an hour every man of the party (with the exception of two pluckless fellows who were kept at home by the women) appeared ready mounted and armed. We were also reinforced by about a dozen of the “Bastard Hottentots” who resided at that time upon our territory as tenants or herdsmen,—an active and enterprising, though rather an unsteady race of men. Our friends, the Tarka boors, many of whom are excellent lion-hunters, were all too far distant to assist us—our nearest *neighbours* residing at least twenty miles from the location. We were, therefore, on account of our own inexperience, obliged to make our Hottentots the leaders of the chase.

The first point was to track the lion to his covert. This was effected by a few of the Hottentots on foot: commencing from the spot where the horse was killed, they followed the *spoor* through grass and gravel and brushwood, with astonishing ease and dexterity, where an inexperienced eye could discern neither footprint nor mark of any kind,—until, at length, we fairly tracked him into a large *bosch*, or straggling thicket of brushwood and evergreens, about a mile distant.

The next object was to drive him out of this retreat, in order to attack him in a close phalanx, and with more safety and effect. The approved mode in such cases is to torment him with dogs till he abandons his covert, and stands at bay in the open plain. The whole band of hunters then

march forward together, and fire deliberately one by one. If he does not speedily fall, but grows angry and turns upon his enemies, they must then stand close in a circle, and turn their horses rear-outward; some holding them fast by the bridles, while the others kneel to take a steady aim at the lion as he approaches, sometimes up to the very horses' heels,—couching every now and then, as if to measure the distance and the strength of his enemies. This is the moment to shoot him fairly in the forehead, or some other mortal part. If they continue to wound him ineffectually till he waxes furious and desperate; or if the horses, startled by his terrific roar, grow frantic with terror, and burst loose, the business becomes rather serious, and may end in mischief—especially if all the party are not men of courage, coolness, and experience. The frontier boors are, however, generally such excellent marksmen, and withal so cool and deliberate, that they seldom fail to shoot him dead as soon as they get within a fair distance.

In the present instance, we did not manage matters quite so scientifically. The Bastards, after recounting to us all these and other sage laws of lion-hunting, were themselves the first to depart from them. Finding that with the few indifferent hounds we had made little impression on the enemy, they divided themselves into two or three parties, and rode round the jungle, firing into the spot where the dogs were barking round him,—but without effect. At length, after some hours spent in thus beating about the bush, the Scottish blood of some of my countrymen began to get impatient, and three of them announced their determination to march in and beard the lion in his den, provided three of the Bastards (who were superior marksmen) would support them, and follow up their fire, should the enemy venture to give battle. Accordingly in they went, (in spite of the warnings of some more prudent men,) to within fifteen or twenty paces of the

spot where the animal lay concealed. He was couched among the roots of a large evergreen bush, with a small space of open ground on one side of it; and they fancied, on approaching, that they saw him distinctly, lying glaring at them from under the foliage. Charging the Bastards to stand firm and level fair should *they* miss, the Scottish champions let fly together, and struck—not the lion, as it afterwards proved, but a great block of red stone—beyond which he was actually lying. Whether any of the shot grazed him is uncertain, but, with no other warning than a furious growl, forth he bolted from the bush. The rascally Bastards, in place of now pouring in their volley upon him, instantly turned, and fled helter-skelter, leaving him to do his pleasure upon the defenceless Scots,—who, with empty guns, were tumbling over each other in their hurry to escape the clutch of the rampant savage. In a twinkling he was upon them—and with one stroke of his paw dashed the nearest to the ground. The scene was terrific! There stood the lion with his foot upon his prostrate foe, looking round in conscious power and pride upon the bands of his assailants,—and with a port the most noble and imposing that can be conceived. It was the most magnificent thing I ever witnessed. The danger of our friends however rendered it at the moment too terrible to enjoy either the grand or the ludicrous part of the picture. We expected every instant to see one or more of them torn in pieces,—nor, though the rest of the party were standing within fifty paces with their guns cocked and levelled, durst we fire for their assistance. One was lying under the lion's feet, and the others scrambling towards us in such a way as to intercept our aim upon him. All this passed far more rapidly than I have described it. But luckily the lion, after steadily surveying us for a few seconds, seemed willing to be quits on fair terms; and with a fortunate forbearance, (for which he met but an ungrateful recompense,) turned calmly

away, and driving the snarling dogs like rats from among his heels, bounded over the adjoining thicket like a cat over a footstool, clearing brakes and bushes twelve or fifteen feet high as readily as if they had been tufts of grass,—and, abandoning the jungle, retreated towards the mountains.

After ascertaining the state of our rescued comrade, (who fortunately had sustained no other injury than a slight scratch on the back, and a severe bruise in the ribs, from the force with which the animal had dashed him to the ground,) we renewed the chase with Hottentots and hounds in full cry. In a short time we again came up with the enemy, and found him standing at bay under an old mimosa tree, by the side of a mountain-stream, which we had distinguished by the name of Douglas Water. The dogs were barking round, but afraid to approach him,—for he was now beginning to growl fiercely, and to brandish his tail in a manner that showed he was meditating mischief. The Hottentots, by taking a circuit between him and the mountain, crossed the stream and took a position on the top of a precipice overlooking the spot where he stood. Another party of us occupied a position on the other side of the glen ; and, placing the poor fellow thus between two fires, which confused his attention and prevented his retreat, we kept battering away at him, without truce or mercy, till he fell, unable again to grapple with us, covered with wounds and glory.

He proved to be a full grown lion of the yellow variety, about five or six years of age. He measured nearly twelve feet from the nose to the tip of the tail. His fore leg just at the knee was so thick that I could not clasp it with both hands ; and his neck, breast, and limbs appeared, when the skin was taken off, a complete congeries of sinews. His head, which seemed as large and heavy as that of an ordinary ox, I had boiled for the purpose of preserving the skull, and tasted the flesh from curiosity. It resembled very white

coarse beef,—rather insipid, but without any disagreeable flavour.

Our neighbours, the Nimrods of the Tarka, disapproved highly of our method of attacking this lion in the bush, and said, it was a wonder he did not destroy a few of us. They were highly amused with the discomfiture of our three champions; and the story of “Jan Rennie en de Leeuw,” still continues to be one of their constant jokes against the Scotchmen. This is all fair—and it forms a just counterpoise in favour of our good-humoured neighbours, when the Scottish farmers quiz them too unmercifully about their uncouth agriculture and antediluvian ploughs and harrows.

I imagine the reader has now heard quite enough of the lion, to judge of his character as a neighbour and acquaintance.

To the verses that follow it may be a suitable introduction to mention, that I was informed by the Bechuana Chiefs, that the lion occasionally surprises the giraffe or camelopard in the manner here described; and that, owing to the amazing strength of that magnificent animal, he is sometimes carried away *fifteen* or *twenty* miles before it sinks under him. This fact, I believe, has been formerly mentioned by travellers, and has been ridiculed as absurd by European critics. But the evidence of my friend, old Teysho, in confirmation of it, will probably be admitted as sufficient at least for *poetical* authority.—T. P.

THE LION AND THE CAMELOPARD.

Wouldst thou view the Lion's den?
Search afar from haunts of men—
Where the reed-encircled fountain
Oozes from the rocky mountain,
By its verdure far descried
'Mid the desert brown and wide.

Close beside the sedgy brim
Couchant lurks the Lion grim,
Waiting till the close of day
Brings again the destined prey.

Heedless—at the ambushed brink
The tall Giraffe stoops down to drink :
Upon him straight the savage springs
With cruel joy :—The Desert rings
With clanging sound of desperate strife—
For the prey is strong and strives for life,—
Plunging oft, with frantic bound,
To shake the tyrant to the ground ;
Then bursts like whirlwind through the waste,
In hope to 'scape by headlong haste :
In vain !—the spoiler on his prize
Rides proudly—tearing as he flies.

For life—the victim's utmost speed
Is mustered in this hour of need—
For life—for life—his giant might
He strains, and pours his soul in flight ;
And, mad with terror, thirst, and pain,
Spurns with wild hoof the thundering plain.

'Tis vain !—the thirsty sands are drinking
His streaming blood—his strength is sinking—
The victor's fangs are in his veins—
His flanks are streaked with sanguine stains—
His panting breast in foam and gore
Is bathed :—he reels—his race is o'er !
He falls—and, with convulsive throe,
Resigns his throat to the raging foe ;
Who revels amidst his dying moans :—
While, gathering round to pick his bones,
The vultures watch in gaunt array
Till the proud monarch quits his prey.

South Africa, 1824.

T. P.

No. III.

VAN REENEN'S EXPEDITION TO HAMBONA.

The Grosvenor Indiaman was wrecked on the coast of Natal, on the 4th of August, 1782. Most of the numerous crew and passengers got safely on shore; but only a small party of them were able, after encountering extreme fatigue and privation, during a tedious journey along the seacoast, to reach the Dutch Colony,—of which the eastern boundary then extended only to the Camtoos River. These refugees having stated that many of their companions had been left alive among the natives, a party of boors were sent by the Dutch Government about two years afterwards, to endeavour to discover and bring them into the Colony; but this party returned after only penetrating to the River Somo, one of the branches of the Kei.

At the instance, I believe, of the English Government, a second expedition was set on foot by the Cape Authorities; and in August 1790, Mr. Jacob Van Reenen, an intelligent Cape farmer, with twelve of his countrymen, and accompanied by several waggons, undertook and accomplished this enterprise.

A written journal of his expedition was kept by Van Reenen, and afterwards given to Captain Riou, who published it in London, with a chart and a short preface, in 1792. The narrative is dated June 23, 1791.

As Captain Riou's publication is now out of print, a few extracts from the journal illustrative of what has been stated at page 352, vol. i. respecting the white women, and people of mixed breed, found living among the Hambonas, may not be unacceptable to the reader.

“ November 3.—Arrived on a height, whence we saw

several villages of the Hambonas, a nation quite different from the Caffers; they are of a yellowish complexion, and have long coarse hair frizzed on their heads like a turban. We sent four of our men to the chief, whose name is Camboosa, with a present of beads, and a sheet of copper. Five of them came to us, to whom we gave small presents of beads. They told us, that subject to them was a village of *bastard** Christians, who were descended from people shipwrecked on that coast, and of which three old women were still living, whom Oemtonoue, the Hamboüa captain, had taken as his wives.

“4.—Rode to the before-mentioned village; where we found that the people were descended from whites, some too, from slaves of mixed colour, and natives of the East Indies. We also met with the three old women, who said they were sisters, and had, when children, been shipwrecked on this coast, but could not say of what nation they were, being too young to know at the time the accident happened. We offered to take them and their children back with us on our return; at which they seemed very much pleased.

“5.—We now travelled on several hours; in which distance we passed the Little Mogasie River, on the banks of which is situated the *Bastard* village, where they have very extensive handsome gardens, planted with Caffer corn, maize, sugar-canes, plantains, potatoes, black beans, and many other things; they had also some cattle.

“6.—Proceeded seven hours, near to a very large river, called Sinwoewoe, or Zeekoe River, where we understood from the natives that there was still an Englishman remaining alive, of the crew of the unfortunate ship the Grosvenor.

“8.—We forded the river; when this so called Englishman came to us, and told us that he was a free man, and had

* Note by Captain Riou:—“The Dutch word *bastard*, as it is here used, signifies a Mulatto, or person of mixed breed.”

sailed in an English ship from Malacca. He promised to conduct us to the place where the Grosvenor had been wrecked; adding, that there was nothing to be seen, excepting some cannon, iron ballast, and lead: he likewise said that all the crew of that unfortunate ship had perished; some by the hands of the natives, and the rest by hunger.

“The natives here brought to us some gold and silver, to exchange for red beads, and copper articles, of which they seemed excessively fond.

“10.—We concluded, as this so called Englishman, who was to conduct us to the spot where the wreck lay, did not make his appearance, that he was a runaway slave from the Cape: in which conjecture we were confirmed by one of our Bastaard Hottentots, called Moses, whom this man had asked who his master was; and being answered by the Hottentot, that Jacob Van Reenen was his master, he then asked if he was a son of old Jacob Van Reenen, or Cootje, as my father was commonly called; the Hottentot answered yes: he then told him he was well known at the Cape, and had a wife there and two children. The fear that we should lay hold of him and carry him with us, most probably prevented his ever returning to us again.*

“We now came to a height that we could not pass without great danger and difficulty; and where we learned that the wreck was not far off. We therefore determined to halt, and

* “There is very great reason to suppose that the attempts made by the shipwrecked crew to get to the Cape, may have been thwarted by the villany of the man mentioned in the narrative of the loss of the Grosvenor, by the name of Trout, who, when all things are considered, must be undoubtedly the same person, that in this journal is supposed to be a runaway slave from the Cape. His unwillingness to have any intercourse with Van Reenen's party, to whom he might have been highly useful, as he spoke Dutch, and by whom he certainly would have been amply rewarded for his services, points him out as a person very much to be suspected of having done what he was afraid of being punished for.”

to go on horseback to the spot, to see what could be discovered.

“ 17.—On this day, with some others of the party, I rode to the above-mentioned spot, but saw nothing but five canons, and a great quantity of iron ballast. It was plainly perceived, on a spot of ground between two woods, that people had made fires and sheltered themselves; likewise, on a rising ground between the two woods, was a pit, where things had been buried and dug out again; this confirming to us what the runaway slave had told us, that every thing had been dug up and dispersed very far into the country. We also understood from the natives, that the greatest part of the goods had been conveyed to Rio de la Goa, to be there sold; which place, as well as we could learn, was from this spot a journey of four days, or of forty or fifty hours.

“ The natives hereabouts expressed very great astonishment at our taking such great pains to come in search of the unfortunate crew. And the chiefs, and indeed the whole of them in general, promised, that if any similar disaster should ever happen in future, they would protect and take care of the crew that might come on shore, and conduct them to us, if they could only be assured of obtaining beads, copper, and iron, for so doing; which we promised.

“ Nov. 26.—[On the return homewards.] “ Arrived at the *Bastaard* Christian village. I would now have taken the three old women with us; but they mentioned their desire, before they could accomplish such a plan, of waiting till their harvest time, to gather in their crops; adding that, for this reason, they would at present rather remain with their children and grandchildren; after which, with their whole race, to the amount of four hundred, they would be happy to depart from their present settlement. I concluded, by promising that I would give a full account of them to the Government of the Cape, in order that they might be removed

from their present situation. It is to be observed, that on our visit to these women, they appeared to be exceedingly agitated at seeing people of their own complexion and description.

"This expedition was planned by me, with the previous knowledge of the governor, Van de Graaff, in pursuance of whose command it met with the approbation of the landdrost of the district of Graaff Reinet. It was undertaken with the view of discovering if there still remained alive any of the English women, as had been reported, that were shipwrecked in the Grosvenor, on that part of the coast, in the year 1782, that we might have relieved them from a miserable situation; which was the only motive for undertaking the journey. But, to our sorrow, we could find no soul remaining; and we are fully persuaded that not one of the unfortunate crew is now alive. I was informed by a Malay or Boganese slave who spoke Dutch, and had some years before run away from the Cape, that two years ago the cook of that ship was alive, but that catching the smallpox, he then died.

(Signed)

"JACOB VAN REENEN."

To the above extracts may be added, that Lieutenant Farewell's party have recently discovered the wreck of the Grosvenor near the Second Point Natal, much farther to the westward than had been usually supposed. The remains of the wreck consist of the keel of the vessel, and her guns and iron ballast. The vessel appears to have been heaved by the force of the surf over a ledge of rocks. Whether there had been still any of the crew surviving in the country, and detained by the natives, at the time of Van Reenen's visit, is uncertain; but several of their descendants (mulattoes) have been discovered among the adjoining tribes, and one of them is now in the service of Lieut. Farewell.

No. IV.

WRECKS OF THE GRACE AND ARNISTON.

THE circumstances which occasioned the loss of the *Grace* and her cargo were remarkable, and may not be unworthy of commemoration. The vessel was loaded with wool and oil. Part of the latter had unfortunately been stowed in the hold above the packs of wool, and having leaked considerably during the voyage, a fermentation took place, which began to indicate itself just as they came in sight of land off Cape Agulhas. A strong smell of burning had been previously perceived for several days, and at length smoke began to issue from the hold. They were at this time within an hour's sail of False Bay, for which, alarmed by the state of the cargo, they were anxiously standing in. The wind, however, suddenly veered about, and blew a gale from the northwest, right in their teeth. The smoke hourly increased, and destruction began to stare them in the face. They could not run the ship ashore to the westward of Cape Agulhas, nor attempt to land there with a boat, on account of the violent surf on the rocky coast. They could not beat into Simon's Bay, and the gale increased. There was no time for deliberation. Their only chance was to weather Cape Agulhas, and they bore away before the wind with all the sail they could carry. All the hatches were closed down, and covered with wet sails, and men were employed to throw water constantly upon them. To add to the horrors of their situation, night came on, and the heat increased so much that they could scarcely keep their station upon deck. The captain got out the long boat, and put the passengers and all the crew but two into it,—keeping it in tow, while he himself, with two sailors only, remained on board, one standing by the helm, while the others continued to throw water over the

hatchways. In this manner they weathered Cape Agulhas about dawn of day, and were rounding into Struys' Bay, when the fire burst out upon them. The captain and his two assistants had just time to throw themselves into the boat, and cut the towing rope, when the vessel was enveloped in one entire sheet of flame. They were now happily under the lee of the Cape, and partly sheltered from the gale, and succeeded in getting safe on shore.

The vessel bore away like a blazing comet, but soon went on shore a little to the eastward, when she was bilged, and burned down to the water's edge. About thirty packs of wool were washed on shore, but so much damaged by the oil and fire, as to be of very little value.

A few miles to the eastward of this spot the disastrous wreck of the Arniston transport occurred in 1815. This was a vessel of 1500 tons, belonging to Messrs. Borradailes, of London, and bound from Ceylon to England, having on board Lord Molesworth, with his family and suite, and a number of other passengers, consisting of military officers, ladies and children, and invalid soldiers from India. They had parted company with a fleet of Indiamen, under convoy of H. M. S. *Africaine*, and the *Victor* brig, on the 26th of May, owing to stress of weather; and on the 29th, land was discovered right ahead, the wind blowing from the S. S. E. very strong.

They endeavoured ineffectually to beat up against the wind, in order to weather the land, which they conceived to be that near Table Bay, till near noon on the 30th, when breakers were discovered on the lee bow. The rest of the catastrophe I shall copy verbatim from a paper taken from the depositions of the survivors:—

“When the breakers were seen we wore ship, and hauled to the wind on the other tack; stood on till two P. M., then wore and hauled to the wind on the larboard tack, continuing

on till near four o'clock, when breakers were seen, called Agulhas Reef, which we could not weather on either tack, being completely embayed. Clewed up the sails, and cut away three anchors. The two bower cables parted shortly after. Then Lieutenant Bruce, agent for transports, advised the Captain to cut away the sheet cable, and run the ship ashore, as the only chance of saving the people's lives. The cable was cut, and the ship put before the wind, and in about eight minutes after she struck forward, the ship heeling to windward. Cut away the guns in order to heel her the other way, which could not be effected, consequently, she soon began to break up. About eight o'clock the masts went, and the ship in a very short time was quite in pieces. Many people were drowned below, in consequence of her heeling to windward; and others clung to the wreck, endeavouring to reach the shore, which was about a mile and a half distant. Out of the whole crew, consisting of near 350 persons, only six men (sailors) reached the shore with great difficulty upon planks, being much bruised by the wreck and surf, which was very high. At daylight the next morning, the stern port of the ship was the only part to be seen. The beach was covered with wreck, stores, and a number of dead bodies, among which, were those of Lord and Lady Molesworth, the Agent, Captain, and some children. These were buried by us, the six survivors.

“ On the next day, the 1st of June, considering ourselves to be to the westward of Cape Point, it was agreed to coast the beach to the eastward, which we continued to do for four days and a half, subsisting on shell-fish from off the rocks; but fearing we had taken a wrong direction, it was agreed to return to the wreck, and we accomplished it in three days and a half. Here we remained six days, subsisting chiefly on a cask of oatmeal that had drifted on shore, and which, being damaged, we dried in the sun, and experienced great

relief from it. The pinnacle had been thrown ashore bilged, which we proposed to repair in the best manner circumstances would allow, and endeavour to coast along shore. At that time, (the 14th of June,) being at work on the boat, we were fortunately discovered by a farmer's son, (Jan Zwartz,) who was out shooting, and who humanely carried us to his father's house, where we remained, with every comfort he could afford us, for a week, and then set off for Cape Town, where we arrived on Thursday evening, the 26th of June.

"Before we left the country, we were informed that 331 bodies, thrown on shore, had been interred near the beach.

(Signed)

"CHARLES STEWART SCOTT,
"Carpenter's Mate."

Mr. Theunissen, who visited this wreck as soon as it was discovered by the farmers, informed me, that he counted about 300 dead bodies on the beach; and that the scene was truly deplorable and affecting. Mothers with their children, and husbands with their wives locked in their arms, were found lying as they were washed up by the sea. The whole shore, for miles, was strewn with the wreck. I saw, myself, oak rafters in many of the houses in the vicinity that had been taken from the beams of the *Arniston*. G. T.

No. V.

SOME ACCOUNT OF MR. FAREWELL'S SETTLEMENT AT PORT NATAL, AND OF A VISIT TO CHAKA, KING OF THE ZOOLAS, &c.

THE following sketch, drawn up by Captain King of the *Mary*, (a trading vessel lately wrecked on entering the harbour at Port Natal,) furnishes some interesting details respecting

Mr. Farewell's infant settlement, the character and views of the tyrant Chaka, the manners and condition of the Zoola people, and the appearance of their country. It forms, therefore, a suitable appendage to my remarks on this subject at page 357, vol. i., and an appropriate counterpart to Mr. Brownlee's account of the Amakosæ Caffers. Captain King has, I believe, since this was written, returned from Cape Town to Port Natal, with a vessel and stores to relieve his own men, and assist his enterprising friend Mr. Farewell. G. T.

In the latter part of 1823, Lieutenant Farewell and Mr. A. Thomson accompanied me in the *Salisbury*, on a voyage to the East coast of Africa. Having arrived in the neighbourhood where we intended to commence trading, we attempted at several parts, but it appeared impossible to land. The boats were then sent on shore at St. Lucie, on the coast of Fumos. Mr. Farewell's upset, but, although considerably bruised, he providentially escaped being drowned. Several days after, Mr. Thomson met with a similar accident, his boat being overwhelmed when nearly a mile from the beach; they all gained the shore by swimming, except three poor fellows, who perished in the attempt. We now determined on abandoning this spot, our views being chiefly directed to another quarter. Several weeks having elapsed, we ran into Port Natal, but the voyage proving altogether unsuccessful, we returned to the Cape of Good Hope. The *Salisbury*, and the *Julia*, our tender, were the first vessels that had entered that port during the life-time of the oldest inhabitants.

Mr. Farewell again, in April 1825, joined by two others, with a party of about twenty-five people, fitted out another expedition to this port. However, these new adventurers not finding trade so brisk as they anticipated, took the earliest opportunity of returning, and left Mr. Farewell to carry

his projects into effect alone. He was joined by Mr. Fynn, and afterwards by three white people and ten Hottentots; from which time, till the arrival of the *Mary*, they had suffered intensely. Mr. Fynn has shared largely in these sufferings: he has undauntedly penetrated forests, passed through savage nations, and has narrowly escaped from several attempts that have been made on his life.

Chaka, King of the Zoolas, has granted to Mr. Farewell about thirty-five miles of coast, including Port Natal, and about one hundred miles of inland country, for some remuneration in merchandise; and assures the white people of his protection. He has also allowed Mr. Fynn about 450 people to cultivate the land, and to do whatever he may require of them. Mr. Farewell's fort and house are by this time finished. Within the fort he keeps his cattle, of which he has a good stock. It is of a triangular form,—at each angle one gun is to be placed. The house is built of wood, about sixty feet by twenty, and has six tolerably good rooms. This settlement is situated on the N.W. side of the harbour, and the king has named it after its founder. Mr. Farewell's party are much respected by Chaka, and, in fact, by the whole nation.

The settlement of the shipwrecked crew of the *Mary* is on the S.E. part, the most eligible spot we could find for building; it consists of five huts, built in the native style, and one storehouse. A vessel, when I left, was nearly two-thirds finished, built of excellent wood; we used no part of the wreck, except the bolts, &c.

Much praise is due to Mr. Hutton, and also to that part of the crew which remained, for their steadiness and obedience.

The object of my leaving Natal was for the express purpose of procuring supplies, at the request of Mr. Farewell, and of my people.

Port Natal is easy of access for vessels drawing not more than eight feet of water, and on the last of the flood tide. It has on its bar eleven feet at high-water spring-tides : at times it exceeds that depth.

This harbour is perfectly sheltered from all winds, and is sufficiently large to contain at least thirty sail. The cape forms a spacious bay, where ships may ride in safety, with S.W. and Westerly winds, in from nine to eleven fathoms, sandy bottom : the best anchorage is when the cape bears S. by W. half W. or S.S.W. at the distance of a mile and a half.

Having collected from the *Mary* every thing we could see a possibility of saving, and made arrangements for building a small vessel, (which appeared an arduous undertaking, on account of our very limited means, and the principal part of the carpenter's tools being lost,) I accompanied Messrs. Farewell, Fynn, and several seamen, with about forty natives, on a journey to King Chaka, of the Zoola nation. On the eighth day, after having travelled about 135 miles through a most picturesque country, and crossed several rivers, we arrived at the summit of a mountain, from which the view was particularly grand and imposing. We could distinguish the king's residence, and numerous other kraals, on an extensive plain, encompassed by a chain of hills. Shortly afterwards, we came to a brook, where we refreshed, and put ourselves in proper apparel to meet the king. At about eight at night we arrived at the entrance of his kraal, and were soon admitted. Afterwards we were taken to his private residence, and gave the customary salute of the nation, which not being answered, was repeated. A domestic now informed us, that the king was holding an en-daba (a council) with his warriors ; we then proceeded in order, and soon discovered his majesty centred among his subjects, and surrounded by large fires. We stood for a few minutes, while the chief who ac-

accompanied us addressed himself to the king, relative to our mission ; after which we were desired to advance, presented our presents, and seated ourselves on the ground, at about six yards' distance from him. During this interview his discourse was principally on war, owing to his enemies being at hand. However, he soon permitted us to retire to the huts which had been prepared for us. He soon afterwards dismissed his people, and retired to his private kraal ; we then received a message, requesting we would attend there. Here our reception was very different from the former ; he now cast off his stern look, became good-humoured, and conversed through our interpreters on various subjects. A large basket of boiled beef, and several earthen pots of milk, were ordered to be placed before us, of which we ate heartily. After this entertainment we expressed a wish to retire, which he very readily assented to, on account of our being much fatigued. The following day we again waited upon him, and found him seated upon his mat, haranguing his people. We shortly withdrew, and rambled about the greater part of this day ; and in the evening were highly entertained by his warriors singing war and other songs. At the king's request, we fired a train of powder, to show its effects ; and after several other entertainments, he retired, expressing himself much pleased.

The following morning proved excessively hot, so much so that it was scarcely possible to stir about ; we therefore kept within our hut. The king, however, feeling no inconvenience from it, sent for our sailors, and proposed their going with him, and a number of his people, to hunt the elephant. These men being aware of their inability, and having only lead balls, prudently declined, and said they could not go without consulting us. The king desired the interpreter to say they were afraid : this touched their pride ; and to convince him of the contrary, they took up their muskets, and

followed him. Half an hour or more had elapsed before Mr. Farewell and myself were made acquainted with this proceeding. Feeling satisfied that it was done only to convince his nation of the insufficiency of our arms (of which we were equally aware) to destroy such animals, we immediately went in pursuit of them ; and soon fell in with the king, seated under a large tree, surrounded by his warriors, from which he had a complete view of the valley out of which they intended to start the elephant : we took our station about 200 yards from him, under a smaller tree, waiting impatiently, yet dreading the result. Two hours had nearly elapsed, when a messenger presented to the king the tail of an elephant, at which they all appeared greatly surprised ; he was desired to bring it to us, and say the white people had killed the animal. As may be supposed, we could scarcely credit the fact, but hastened towards the forest to join our people, and met them almost exhausted ; we, notwithstanding, had the satisfaction of congratulating each other upon what appeared to us almost a miracle. It appeared that the natives drove the elephant from the forest to a plain, where the sailors placed themselves directly before the animal : the first shot entered under the ear, when it became furious : the other lodged near the fore shoulder, after which it fell, and soon expired. Had this affair turned out differently, we should, in all probability, have been held in a contemptible light by this nation, and awkward consequences might have resulted to the settlement.

In the evening, at the request of the king, we joined in their amusements, and could not ourselves possibly avoid singing, and commenced with ' God Save the King : ' on our explaining its literal meaning, Chaka was highly pleased ; in fact, there was nothing but good humour to be observed in the countenances of every one present. The party broke up at a late hour ; and, as is usual, in the morning we paid the

king an early visit. We now expressed a wish to see him in his war dress; he immediately retired, and in a short time returned attired: his dress consists of monkeys' skins, in three folds from his waist to the knee, from which two white cows' tails are suspended, as well as from each arm; round his head a neat band of fur stuffed, in front of which is placed a tall feather, and on each side a variegated plume. He advanced with his shield, an oval about four feet in length, and an umconto, or spear, when his warriors commenced a war song, and he began his manœuvres. Chaka is about thirty-eight years of age, upwards of six feet in height, and well proportioned: he is allowed to be the best pedestrian in the country, and, in fact, during his wonderful exercises this day he exhibited the most astonishing activity: on this occasion he displayed a part of the handsomest beads of our present.

While sitting in our hut, at a late hour, we were aroused by the shrieks of thousands of human voices: we naturally concluded it was the enemy advancing, being aware they expected them hourly: the real cause, however, was soon ascertained,—which was the death of the king's grandmother, supposed to be between ninety and a hundred years of age. The kraal in which she resided, was about a mile distant. Men, women, and children, having cried bitterly for several hours, there ensued a profound silence; after which thousands at the same moment commenced a most doleful song, which lasted a night and the greater part of the following day. It is said that this is the only instance ever known of the king having grieved. To give his majesty an opportunity of seeing our respect for the deceased, we repaired to the kraal, where the corpse lay; but in consequence of the excessive heat of the day, and it being surrounded by so many thousand people, with scarcely a breath of air blowing, we were obliged to retire to a more wholesome spot.

To give an idea of the heat, hundreds were carried away, having actually fainted, and were drenched in a contiguous brook. The remains of the old lady were conveyed to a particular spot, where they inclosed her within a stone wall; an honour which is seldom paid, except to the chiefs, who are similarly inclosed, with their heads above ground: the others are allowed to remain on the spot where they may have died, unless it happens in a hut; in which case they are removed a short distance, and in a few hours are devoured by hyænas or wolves, with which the country abounds. When a chief of a kraal dies, it is immediately burnt; and the inhabitants remove to an eligible spot and build another. In consequence of the death above alluded to, several days elapsed before we had any communication with the king; at length he allowed us an interview, when we thought it best to acquaint him, lest he should hear it through another channel, that our vessel had sustained some damage, and we were in hopes, in about three months, to get her in order. We were apprehensive he might take advantage of our unfortunate situation, had he known she had been an entire wreck. He expressed himself satisfied, and made the remainder of our stay in his territory tolerably pleasant.

The day having arrived for our departure, Chaka made us a present of 107 head of cattle; we then took our leave, with a promise of returning as early as possible. On our way to Natal, we found the rivers more difficult to cross than before; in attempting one, my companions nearly lost their lives. Mr. Farewell, in stepping from one rock to another, was carried away by the stream into a most perilous situation: Mr. Fynn, with his accustomed bravery, being near, plunged in, followed by several natives, to Mr. Farewell's assistance; the current carried them all a considerable distance, until they came in contact with a body of reeds attached to the bottom, which caused an eddy: here they remained several

minutes, to rest, after which they happily succeeded in swimming to the bank. These rivers are infested with alligators, which are constantly destroying the natives.

On the seventh day after our departure from Chaka, after an irksome journey, we arrived at our residence at Port Natal.

History, perhaps, does not furnish an instance of a more despotic and cruel monster than Chaka. His subjects fall at his nod. He is acknowledged to be the most powerful ruler for many hundred miles. He came to the government after the death of his father : his elder brother should have succeeded, but through some treachery on his part he got him put to death, and obtained the sovereignty. He has reigned about eight years, during which time he has conquered and laid waste the whole country between the Amapondas, nearly 200 miles S.W. of Natal, and the southern and most western parts of Delagoa : he has under him many tributary kings ; and the only powerful enemy he has now to contend with is a chief named Escon-yana, whose territories lie N.W. of the Mapoota, and who has gathered all his forces with the intention of destroying Chaka. Several attacks have been already made, but have always been repulsed. The Zoolas are now preparing for an advance upon them, and but little doubt is entertained that they will succeed, although the enemy exceeds them by many thousands. Chaka's strict discipline and method of onset is such that nothing in their warfare can possibly withstand the attack of the Zoolas. The dresses of his warriors are similar to his own ; he differs only in his feather ; and they are distinguished in their different divisions by coloured shields : they charge with a single umconto, or spear, and each man must return with it from the field, or bring that of his enemy, otherwise he is sure to be put to death.

The following fact will convey some idea of Chaka's des-

potism :—Several months before my departure from Nathal, he was informed that a chief, who had under him about 450 men, had proved himself a coward (which was in reality nothing more than having been overpowered and defeated). The king sent for him and all his people to his own kraal, where every man was put to death : the lives of the women and children only were spared, and many of the former were added to his seraglio. Of this establishment it would be almost impossible to estimate the extent,—yet he will not allow that he cohabits with them ; and to prove to his people this fact, when any of the women appear pregnant, they are instantly killed. He says, when he has defeated Escon-yana, he will direct his course to the frontier of the Cape Colony, and not leave a living soul, nor rest until he reaches the white people ; he will then be satisfied, and enjoy himself with his wives. I could relate many other instances of his barbarity, but they go to such an enormous extent, I feel unwilling to mention them, lest they should be discredited.

The chiefs of this nation observe the same laws as the other class, and should they in any shape violate them, they know well their fate. At the same time the petty chiefs possess the power of putting their own people to death.

The Zoolas are a tall athletic good-looking race, extremely cleanly, and very respectful. They are in the highest state of discipline, and always in readiness for war, in which they are mostly engaged, and have a great thirst for the blood of their enemies : they are irritable amongst themselves for the moment, but soon forget the past, and become friendly ; they are also extremely generous to each other.

Dancing and singing are their chief amusements. The war-song, which is the king's composition, cannot be described, but to the ear of their enemy it must strike terror. In singing the common songs they are accompanied by the women,

and dance with the most extravagant antic gestures, and throw themselves about, with the greatest agility, into most strange positions. When their gambols are over, having little or nothing to do with domestic duties, they sleep, or carve their wooden vessels, spoons, and ornaments of ivory ; they also make several sorts of musical instruments, which merely produce simple notes, without the least harmony.

Their heads, in general, are kept shaved, except a circle, neatly made with their hair, in imitation of the mode adopted by Chaka ; and from each side is suspended a bunch of feathers. The different parts of their body are ornamented with beads ; they wear no other covering, except when going to war, and, at a distance, are only to be distinguished from the king by the difference of their feathers. To hunting they devote but little time, being almost constantly engaged in war.

We are informed that there are several nations of Cannibals, residing in the interior of the country, an individual of one of which we saw at the king's kraal, who recently came there, whether voluntarily, or otherwise, I could not ascertain. He allows that his countrymen live mostly on the flesh of their enemies, of whom they are constantly in pursuit.

This man's features had so great a resemblance to those of an European, that Mr. Fynn, who first observed him close to us, (at our first interview with Chaka,) whispered softly to Mr. Farewell and myself, that there was a Christian in disguise. I cast my eye carelessly round, and was struck with astonishment at the sight : his hair was long, and covered a great part of his face ; he had mustachios, a large beard, a stiletto suspended from his neck, and the other parts of his body concealed by a carosse of hide. This costume, it appears, is common with his nation. During our stay he became very communicative, and put us in possession of much

information relative to the inland tribes. Chaka is particularly kind to him ; but as this is an extraordinary circumstance, he has, no doubt, some interested motive.

The country of Fumos throughout is most picturesque, and the soil apparently very prolific ; it abounds in different sorts of valuable wood, and in various descriptions of animals, several of which pay only nocturnal visits ; wolves and tigers (leopards) infest the country, and destroy numbers of the natives. Nine dogs, during my stay at Natal, fell a prey to them, three of which were literally torn from Mr. Farewell's house, and others taken in our sight. The climate is extremely hot, but the air is clear and salubrious.

There are several rivers of some magnitude inland, but they are not navigable on account of shoals ; all the rivers in this country abound with alligators.

The women are of the middle stature ; the majority of them are exceedingly well featured, and have fine figures ; the stoutest are considered the belles : in justice it must be confessed, they are generous and hospitable, being at all times willing to accommodate strangers with food, &c., but I cannot pronounce them tender-hearted ; however, this may be attributed to their savage habits ;—on the other hand, they are extremely respectful to their husbands.

Their amusements are similar to those of the men, dancing and singing being the principal ; and from having commenced at an early age, they perform their parts well : their voices are raised to an astonishing pitch, which is accompanied by clapping of hands ; they keep both feet close, and jump about with great agility. They appear kind to each other, but nevertheless are jealous : this may easily be accounted for, as there are no bounds to the number of wives the men possess. In the kraals, their huts are placed at equal distances right and left from their chief's, from which they are divided by stake or reed fences. Adultery is immediately

punished with death ; and the laws of the country in other respects are severe in the extreme, as every command of the husband must be obeyed, even in the most trifling cases, or their life is the inevitable sacrifice. Many instances have come within my knowledge, where they have escaped to us, and begged our intercession with their chiefs ; in these cases their lives have been purchased for a quantity of beads. Mr. Farewell has saved many.

The business of a woman (except in regard to works which require extraordinary labour, as in felling and removing trees, &c.) is the most tedious and laborious,—such as hoeing, digging, and planting corn and other seeds ; in fact, every thing that regards husbandry must be attended to by them : they are in general the drudges of the kraals,—though the favourites, in some measure, are exempt from this excess in work. In travelling, they are always obliged to carry the loads, while the men walk at ease. I have known many perform a journey of nearly three hundred miles, with loads from forty to fifty pounds weight ; yet they go about their work with as much good humour as though it was the effect of choice and not of compulsion. They perform astonishing journeys, and apparently with less fatigue than the men.

At the age of fourteen or fifteen they are allowed to become wives, and then have their heads shaved, except a small part on the crown, which is, like the men's, perfectly round, and kept plastered with red clay and oil : at a short distance it has the appearance of several rows of beads. The lower part of their ears is cut sufficiently large to admit an ornament of the size of a half-crown.

They wear an apron of hide about the middle ; and it becomes so pliable and soft, from frequent rubbing, that it has quite the appearance of cloth. This appendage, when at all soiled, is rubbed over with oil. It is ornamented with such beads as they may, according to their rank, be allowed to

wear ; they also wear ivory rings on their arms, and different ornaments of their own manufacture round their ankles, and oil their bodies generally every day, or as often as they feel disposed. When they become wives, there is a sort of ceremony observed, which I believe is confined to the chiefs. Two or three cows, or a certain quantity of beads, are given to their parents by way of compensation, from the husband ; and the following day a feast is given on the occasion, when several bullocks are killed, and a large supply of milk provided, upon which they feast after their dancing.

When a woman is delivered of a child, neither she nor her child are allowed to be seen by any man till after six days. Should the infant prove a girl, it is kept constantly with the mother ; if a boy, he is reared up to the exercises of his father. It is a melancholy fact, that when they have arrived at a very early age, should their mothers attempt to chastise them, such is the law, that these lads are at the moment allowed to kill their mothers.

The girls are very early employed in the fields, and go about without any covering, until they arrive at the age of puberty.

I propose, on some future occasion, to make a few remarks upon the capabilities and resources of this fertile tract of country. I entertain a sanguine hope that the time is not far distant, when the productions of Port Natal, under the indefatigable exertions of Lieutenant Farewell, and his enterprising party, will become no mean acquisition to the trade of this Colony.

Cape Town, July, 1826.

No. VI.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR ENTERING TABLE BAY BY
NIGHT.

Drawn up by Captain W. F.W. Owen, R. N. November, 1825.

The bearings mentioned in these instructions are all by compass, or magnetic.

1st.—To enter Table Bay from the northward, meaning to pass outside of Robben Island, a ship should keep the Light to the eastward of south—nine degrees east, or about south and by east, until she get soundings under twenty fathoms, at a little more than a mile from the Light-house; she may then steer east south east, or east and by south, not to come under ten or twelve fathoms, until the Light bears west south west; she may then steer for the anchorage, and may anchor in from seven to six fathoms as soon as the Lights are shutting in behind the Lion's Tail.

This tract leads about a mile clear of danger on Green Point; but a ship need not approach it so near, if she have, by seeing Robben Island, ascertained by its bearings that she is clear of the Whale Rock, in which case she may round it at a much greater distance from Green Point, if desirable; but the soundings in that case will not alone be a sure guide.

2d.—In coming from the south west, a ship should not get less than forty fathoms before the Light bears south east, or east south east, nor less than twenty fathoms before it bears south and by east, when the preceding directions may be followed.

From the northward, inside of Robben Island, the Light should be kept about south west and by south, until a ship has passed that island; in doing which, she may have some

casts from eight to six fathoms; and when on that course the water deepens to eleven or twelve fathoms, she may steer for the anchorage by the plan as before directed.

In beating round Green Point, a ship should never shoal her water under eleven or twelve fathoms, until she have brought the Light to bear west south west, as before said.

In beating between Robben Island and the Main, to enter Table Bay, the soundings may be taken from the Island, as it shoals to very regularly. In standing towards the Main, it appears prudent to tack at the first cast of the lead after the water shoals.

In these directions, it is taken for granted that a ship will always keep her leads going.

By day, or when the shores or surf can be seen, or indeed under any circumstances, the plan ought to be a sufficient guide.

There are two Lights on the Light-house, which are in one, about south west and by south; these appear to be of no other use than to assure the navigator which is the Light-house, if he should see other Lights. We have seen the Lights clearly off deck at sixteen miles' distance; but they will not make clearly as two Lights until within six or seven miles to the westward of them; and from the northward, one Light only will be seen.

No. VII.

NAMES OF THE GOVERNORS OF THE COLONY
OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, SINCE ITS
ESTABLISHMENT IN 1652.

Joan Anthonie Van Riebeeck	8 April, 1652
Zacharias Wagenaar	9 May, 1662
Cornelis Van Qualberg	24 October, 1666
Jacob Borghorst	18 June, 1668
Pieter Hackius	2 June, 1670
Coenraad Van Breitenbach	1 December, 1671
Albert Van Breugel	23 March, 1672
Ysbrand Goske	2 October, 1672
Johan Bax (Van Herentals)	2 January, 1676
Hendrik Crudax	29 June, 1678
Simon Van der Stell	14 October, 1679
Willem Adriaan Van der Stell	11 February, 1699
Johan Cornelis d'Ableing	3 June, 1706
Louis Van Assenburg	1 February, 1708
Willem Helot	28 December, 1711
Maurits Pasques de Chavonnes	28 March, 1714
Jan de la Fontaine (Acting)	8 September, 1724
Pieter Gysbert Nood	25 February, 1727
Jan de la Fontaine (Acting)	24 April, 1729
————— (Effective)	8 March, 1730
Adriaan Van Kervel	14 November, 1736
Daniel Van den Henghel	20 September, 1737
Hendrik Swellengrebel	14 April, 1739
Ryk Tulbagh	30 March, 1751
Joachim Van Plettenberg	12 August, 1771
Pieter Van Reede Van Oudtshoorn, (died on his passage to the Colony, on board of the ship Asia, 23 January, 1773.)	

422 APPENDIX.—LIST OF GOVERNORS.

Cornelis Jacob Van de Graaf	14 February, 1785
Johannes Isaac Rhenius	29 June, 1791
Abraham Jos. Sluysken (Commissioner)	2 September, 1793

UNDER THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT.

J. H. Craig	1 September, 1795
Earl of Macartney :	23 May, 1797
Sir Francis Dundas (Lieutenant Governor)	22 November, 1798
Sir George Young	18 December, 1799
Sir Francis Dundas (Lieutenant Governor)	20 April, 1801

UNDER THE BATAVIAN GOVERNMENT.

Jan Willem Janssens	1 March, 1803
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UNDER THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT.

Sir David Baird	10 January, 1806
Hon. H. G. Grey (Lieutenant Governor)	17 January, 1807
Du Prè, Earl of Caledon	22 May, 1807
Hon. H. G. Grey (Lieutenant Governor)	5 July, 1811
Sir John Francis Cradock	6 September, 1811
Hon. Robt. Meade (Lieutenant Governor)	3 December, 1813
Lord Charles Henry Somerset	6 April, 1814
Sir Rufane Shawe Donkin, (Acting Governor, during the absence of Lord C. H. Somerset)	13 January, 1820
Lord Charles Henry Somerset returned	1 December, 1821
Richard Bourke (Lieutenant Governor) arrived	February, 1826
Lord C. H. Somerset left on leave	5 March, 1826.

No. VIII.

POPULATION TABLES.

In the official census of 1824, furnished by the Ward Masters, the population of Cape Town stood as follows :—

White Inhabitants	.	.	8246
Free Blacks	.	.	1870
Prize Apprentices	.	.	956
Hottentots	.	.	520
Slaves	.	.	7076

Total, 18,668

In this census, however, it is understood that the English settlers recently arrived, were not included; and from the considerable number of these who have subsequently fixed their residence in Cape Town, the entire population (exclusive of the military) must be now very near 20,000 souls.

The following tables, in addition to those already published by the "Civil Servant," will, I conceive, be sufficient to show the progress of population in some of the principal districts, and in the Colony generally, as well as the quantity and different proportions of live-stock, possessed by the inhabitants.

Comparative Abstract of the Population and Live Stock of the Cape District, (exclusive of the Town,) in the Years 1811, 1813, and 1823.

	1811.	1813.	1823.	Total of each class in 1823.
Men	456	460	921	} White Population, 2891
Women	282	298	624	
Boys	307	348	661	
Girls	370	405	685	
Male Hottentots	490	452	519	
Female ditto	464	445	441	} Hottentots . 960
Male Slaves	2589	2579	2396	} Slaves . 3611
Female ditto	825	958	1215	
Draught and Saddle Horses	1987	1872	2279	} Horses . 5268
Breeding Horses	3074	2928	2989	
Draught Oxen	9435	9488	10,118	} Large Cattle 15,369
Breeding Cattle	6511	5757	5251	
Goats	none	7875	5332	} Small ditto 16,418
Sheep	20,474	17,740	11,086	

*Comparative Abstract of the Population and the Live Stock of the District of Graaff-Reinet,
in the Years 1811 and 1824.*

	1811.	1824.	Increase be- tween these Periods.	Total of each Class in 1824.
Men	1500	2993	1493	} White Population 12,189
Women	1119	2278	1159	
Boys	2952	3416	464	
Girls	1934	3502	1568	
Male Hottentots	2939	5322	2383	} Hottentots - 10,725
Female ditto	3193	5403	2210	
Male Slaves	1124	1657	533	} Slaves - 2852
Female ditto	746	1195	449	
Draught and Saddle Horses	3180	6300	3120	} Horses - 17,661
Breeding Horses	5686	11,361	5675	
Draught Oxen	15,162	26,910	11,748	} Large Cattle 131,801
Breeding Cattle	53,315	104,891	51,576	
Goats	104,859	130,141	25,282	} Small ditto 1,640,412
Sheep	1,273,664	1,510,271	236,607	

Summary of the Population of the Cape Colony, from 1806 to 1823, inclusive.

White Inhabitants.			Free Blacks.		Hottentots.		Negro Apprentices.		Slaves.		Total.	Remarks.
A.	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female		
1806	14,074	12,694	..	..	9,784	10,642	..	..	19,346	10,515	77,055	The population is given in this table exclusive of the troops.—The entire population of the Colony, at the end of 1826, including settlers and troops, is estimated at 130,000, in round numbers.
1807	13,624	11,990	529	605	8,496	8,935	..	..	18,990	10,313	73,482	
1808	14,771	12,813	..	..	8,151	8,569	..	..	19,225	10,344	73,873	
1809	15,423	13,357	..	..	8,376	9,366	..	..	18,687	10,338	75,547	
1810	16,546	14,648	..	..	9,553	10,302	..	..	18,873	10,521	80,443	
1811	18,149	16,134	..	..	10,511	11,292	..	..	19,618	11,314	87,018	
1812	17,090	15,617	..	..	9,355	9,995	..	..	18,804	11,103	81,964	
1813	17,714	14,154	..	..	9,936	10,250	..	..	19,238	11,081	82,373	
1814	18,019	16,814	..	..	9,202	9,365	154	29	19,730	11,344	84,657	
1815	19,081	18,183	..	..	9,160	9,387	267	54	18,287	11,320	85,739	
1816	19,578	18,416	..	..	9,696	9,786	573	242	18,614	11,581	88,486	
1817	20,750	18,884	918	958	11,640	11,796	411	132	19,481	12,565	97,535	
1818	21,772	19,620	993	1,037	11,062	11,016	963	402	19,528	12,506	98,899	
1819	22,046	20,171	1,096	787	12,161	12,272	987	441	19,188	12,508	101,657	
1820	22,592	20,505	905	1,027	13,445	13,530	1,061	492	19,081	12,698	105,336	
1821	24,748	22,532	899	972	14,395	14,628	1,045	526	19,327	13,075	112,147	
1822	24,435	22,226	913	983	14,487	14,314	1,029	532	19,222	13,310	111,451	
1823	25,487	23,212	891	1,098	15,336	15,213	1,118	652	19,786	13,412	116,205	

No. IX.

METEOROLOGICAL DIARY,

Kept during the Author's Journey to the Bechuana country.

The state of the Thermometer is given at about an hour after sunrise, and at one o'clock P. M. in the greatest heat, in the shade.

Date, 1823.	State of Thermometer,		Remarks.
	an hour after sunrise	at one o'clock P. M.	
April			
Sun.	20	56° 62°	Cloudy.
M.	21	52 66	Do. with strong N.W. wind.
T.	22	57 60	Clear.
W.	23	52 68	Cloudy, distant flying showers.
T.	24	56 70	Clear.
F.	25	50 69	Cloudy, a little rain during night.
S.	26	52 65	Light clouds and fine weather.
S.	27	55 64	Clear, S.E. wind.
M.	28	55 70	Do. calm.
T.	29	54 72	Clear, with a few light clouds.
W.	30	53 68	Clear, S. wind.
May			
T.	1	56 68	Cloudy, rain during night.
F.	2	54 68	Clear and fine, calm.
S.	3	55 69	Do. Do. Do.
S.	4	60 75	Cloudy, with thunder.
M.	5	50 64	Rainy in the morning, clear at noon.
T.	6	48 60	Cold and cloudy, with flying rain.
W.	7	54 67	Clear all day.
T.	8	55 68	Do. Do.
F.	9	55 69	Do. Do.
S.	10	59 70	Do. Do. strong dry N.W. wind.
S.	11	59 68	Do. Do. Do.
M.	12	53 64	Clear, dry.
T.	13	53 67	Do. Do.
W.	14	54 69	Clear.
T.	15	55 65	Do.
F.	16	56 67	Do. with strong N.W. wind.
S.	17	54 64	Rain all day.

Date		State of Thermometer,		Remarks.
1823.		an hour after sunrise.	at one o'clock P. M.	
May				
S.	18	46°	55°	Cloudy, with strong W. wind.
M.	19	49	68	Clear, Do. N.W.
T.	20	48	60	Clear, Clear } Light snow on adjacent
W.	21	43	60	Clear, Clear } mountains.
T.	22	49	58	Cloudy, flying showers.
F.	23	32	45	Snow, (Past Sneeuwberg.)
S.	24	47	62	Clear, Calm.
S.	25	48	64	Do. Do. }
M.	26	44	65	Do. Do. }
T.	27	45	64	Do. Do. }
W.	28	46	65	Do. Do. }
T.	29	44	67	Do. Do. }
F.	30	49	69	Do. Do. }
S.	31	47	57	Cloudy, with storm of rain in the night.
June				
S.	1	42	46	Clear and frosty.
M.	2	34	50	Do. Do.
T.	3	30	42	Do. N.W. wind. Snow on adjacent
W.	4	40	51	Do. Cloudy, P. M. [heights.
T.	5	49	60	Clear, Clear.
F.	6	50	66	Do. Do. }
S.	7	52	76	Do. Do. }
S.	8	48	75	Do. Do. }
M.	9	50	72	Do. Do. }
T.	10	51	65	Do. Do. }
W.	11	45	64	Do. Do. }
T.	12	46	71	Do. Do. }
F.	13	45	70	Do. Do. }
S.	14	46	68	Do. Do. }
S.	15	43	66	Do. Do. }
M.	16	40	67	Do. Do. }
T.	17	42	69	Do. Do. }
W.	18	45	77	Do. Do. }
T.	19	46	76	Do. Do. }
F.	20	44	77	Do. Do. }
S.	21	45	70	Do. Do. }
S.	22	46	72	Do. Do. }
M.	23	47	72	Do. Do. }
T.	24	48	67	Do. Do. }

Date 1823.		State of Thermometer,		Remarks.
		an hour after sunrise.	at one o'clock P. M.	
June				
W.	25	49°	70°	Light clouds. N.W. wind. Thunder-
T.	26	44	62	Clear, Clear. [clouds.
F.	27	44	58	Cloudy, Clear, P. M.
S.	28	40	59	Clear, Do.
S.	29	42	59	Light clouds, Do.
M.	30	43	60	Clear, Do.
July				
T.	1	47	69	Clear, Clear.
W.	2	50	75	Do. Do.
T.	3	40	74	Light clouds. Clear.
F.	4	46	67	Clear, Do.
S.	5	44	71	Do. Do.
S.	6	47	68	Do. Do.
M.	7	48	70	Do. Do.
T.	8	49	74	Light clouds. Do. Do. P. M.

METEOROLOGICAL DIARY,

Kept during the Author's Journey to Namaqualand, &c.

Date 1824.		State of Thermometer,		Remarks.
		an hour after sunrise	at one o'clock P. M.	
July.				
S.	24	53°	72°	Fine.
S.	25	54	75	Do.
M.	26	52	70	55° on Mountains. Cloudy and cold.
T.	27	45	59	Rain.
W.	28	40	62	Fine and clear.
T.	29	42	68	Do.
F.	30	38	62	Do.
S.	31	48	60	Do.
Augt.				
S.	1	49	63	Do.
M.	2	50	62	Do.
T.	3	58	59	Heavy rain.

Date 1824.	State of Thermometer,		Remarks.
	an hour after sunrise.	at one o'clock P. M.	
Aug.			
W.	4	45°	62° Heavy Rain.
T.	5	55	63 Showery.
F.	6	56	69 Fine.
S.	7	57	70 Do.
S.	8	54	86 Do.
M.	9	48	84 Do.
T.	10	55	80 Do.
W.	11	56	85 Do.
T.	12	53	85 Do.
F.	13	54	85 Do.
S.	14	50	90 Do. sultry, and hazy.
S.	15	52	82 Do.
M.	16	76	83 Thunder and lightning.
T.	17	62	82 Fine.
W.	18	51	87 Do.
T.	19	56	88 Do.
F.	20	64	84 Do.
S.	21	65	86 Do.
S.	22	58	75 Do. with flying clouds.
M.	23	55	60 Cloudy.
T.	24	37	62 Snow in the morning.
W.	25	48	65 Light rain.
T.	26	50	68 Flying showers.
F.	27	53	75 Fine.
S.	28	59	68 Do.
S.	29	56	70 Do.
M.	30	52	68 Do.
T.	31	50	70 Do.
Sept.			
W.	1	55	70 Do.

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